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NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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1954-55

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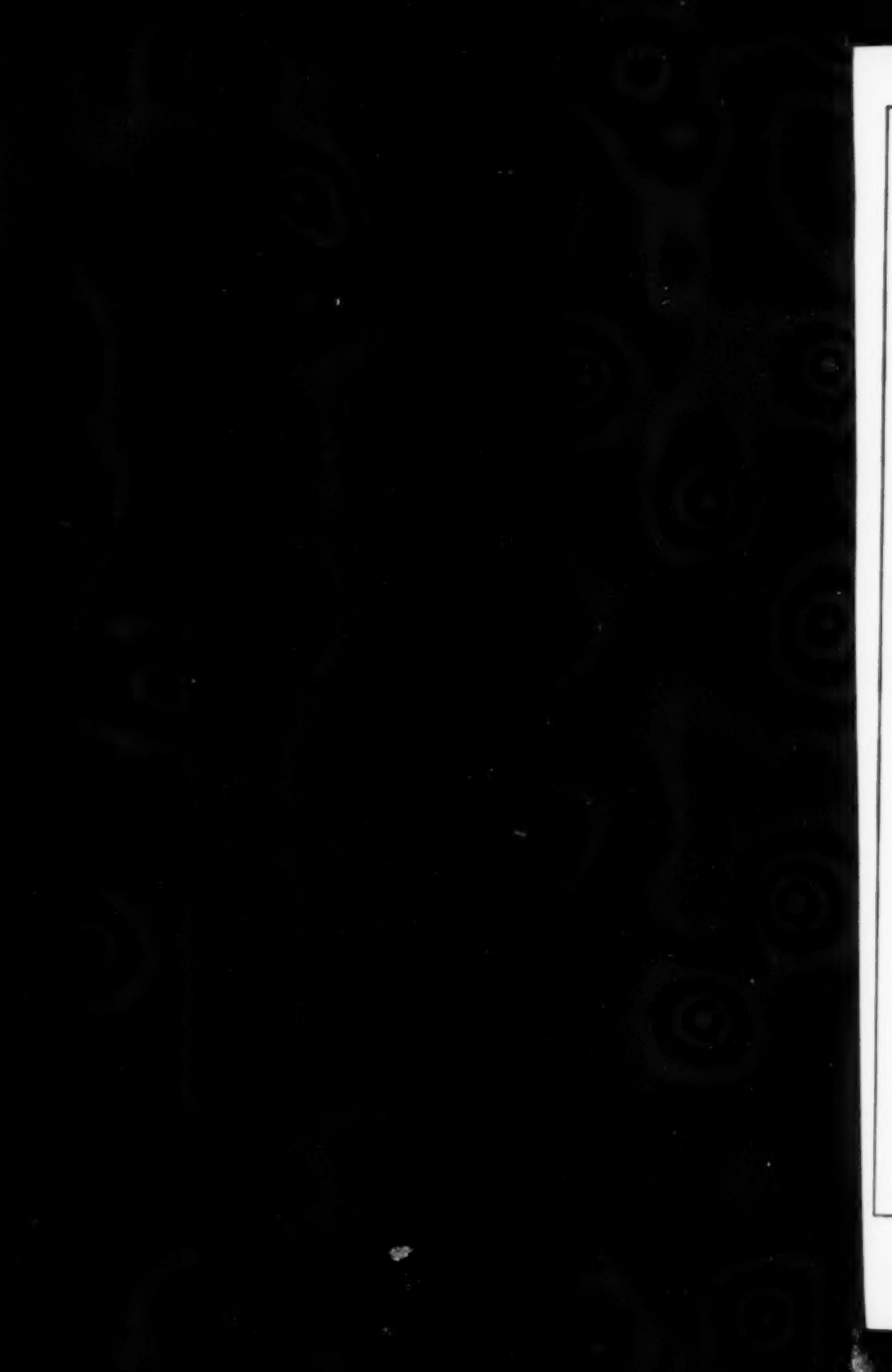
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Issued Monthly, October to May Inclusive

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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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Approved List of National Contests and Activities for 1954-55

Participation in only approved National Contests and Activities assures the profession's continued control

THE National Contest and Activities Committee¹ of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals considers for placement on this annual list the applications of business and industrial organizations and other agencies which offer national contests and participation in national activities (all non-athletic) to youth in secondary schools.

A. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PARTICIPATING IN NATIONAL CONTESTS AND ACTIVITIES IN SCHOOLS

This is a professional service offered to schools by their professional organization, and it is recommended:

1. *Policy for All Secondary Schools*

That all secondary schools take a firm and consistent position on non-participation in unapproved national and state contests and activities except in accordance with the recommendations in 2, 3, and 4 below.

2. *School Participation*

- (a) On a national basis—That a school confine its participation to those national contests that are currently placed on the approved list by the National Contest and Activities Committee.
- (b) On a state basis—That schools limit their participation in contests and activities sponsored by their own state high-school organizations within the state in preference to any activities sponsored by other agencies. Many states evaluate and approve statewide or local contests and activities, and approved lists are available from officers of state high-school organizations.

3. *Student Participation*

- (a) That, if a school participates in any contest or activity outside the state, no pupil should be absent from school more than five school days for a single contest or activity.
- (b) That an exception for an individual contestant be made if successive steps are required to determine the winner of a national or regional contest.

¹ The National Contest and Activities Committee: George A. Manning, Box 262, Muskegon, Michigan, Chairman; George L. Cleland, *Secondary-School Consultant*, State Department of Education, Topeka, Kansas; Robert L. Fleming, *Principal*, South High School, Youngstown, Ohio; John M. French, *Principal*, La Porte High School, La Porte, Indiana; and Albert Willis, *Executive Secretary*, Illinois High School Association, 11 South La Salle Street, Chicago 3, Illinois.

- (c) That no high school should enter more than two regional or two national contests per year in which ten or more pupils from that school are involved initially, except scholarship contests.
- (d) That no individual pupil should participate in more than one contest in each of the eight categories on the approved list except where scholarships are involved.

4. *Essay Contests*

That a school should not participate in more than one essay or forensic contest each semester. (Fewer than five pupils in each school shall not be considered official school participation.) Participating in essay contests is generally regarded as of questionable educational value because the winning of awards through essay contests has tended to encourage plagiarism and dishonesty.

B. GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

The Committee suggests that all school administrators give consideration to these recommendations:

1. Approval by the National Committee does not give a sponsor the right to operate in any state unless the individual state wishes to participate.
2. The approved list is simply a list from which each state may make a selection.
3. The list is too lengthy to expect any state to choose more than a fraction from the full list. Please consider no others.
4. Sponsors of essay contests should have all essays read and judged outside the school staff by judges of their own selection.
5. Relating to scholarships, no sponsor should place any substantial award directly in the hands of any boy or girl. The money should be placed with the treasurer of the institution selected by the boy or girl.
6. If the boy or girl fails to attend the institution, the money will then be available for the next qualified applicant.

C. APPROVED NATIONAL CONTESTS (NONATHLETIC) FOR 1954-55

SPONSORING AGENCY	TYPE OF CONTEST APPROVED	CLOSING DATE OF CONTEST
<i>Agriculture Contests</i>		
Future Farmers of America, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D. C.	Livestock, dairy, and poultry judging	October
National Junior Vegetable Growers Association, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts	a. Vegetable Demonstration and Judging	December
	b. Production and Marketing Contest	
	c. Muck Crop Show	
New Farmers of America, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D. C.	Judging	October

Art Contests

American Automobile Association, 1712 G Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

American Legion Auxiliary, 777 North Meridian Street, Indianapolis, Indiana

Eastman Kodak Company, 343 State Street, Rochester, New York.

Fisher Body Division, General Motors Corporation, Detroit 2, Michigan

Forest City Manufacturing Co., 1641 Washington Avenue, St. Louis 3, Missouri

Kansas City Art Institute and School of Design, 4415 Warwick Boulevard, Kansas City 2, Missouri

National Wildlife Federation, 3308 Fourteenth Street, N. W., Washington 10, D. C.

Essay Contests

Advertising Federation of America, 330 West 42nd Street, New York 18, New York

Atlantic Monthly, 8 Arlington Street, Boston 16, Massachusetts

Civitan International, 12818 Puritan Avenue, Detroit 27, Michigan

Improved Order of Red Men, 1521 Girard Avenue, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Institute for International Government, 11 West 42nd Street, New York, New York

Ladies Auxiliary to the Veterans of Foreign Wars, 406 West 34th Street, Kansas City 11, Missouri

National Employ the Physically Handicapped Week, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington 25, D. C.

National Sales Executives, 136 East 57th Street, New York 22, New York

National Tuberculosis Association, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, New York

Omega Psi Phi Fraternity, Inc., 107 Rhode Island Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Examinations

American Association for the United Nations, Inc., 45 East 65th Street, New York 21, New York

American Association of Teachers of French, Southwestern College, Memphis 12, Tennessee

Association for Promotion of Study of Latin, Elizabeth, New Jersey

Propeller Club of the United States, 17 Battery Place, New York, New York

Forensic Contests

Future Farmers of America, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D. C.

Traffic Safety Poster Contest March

Poppy Poster Contest May

Photographic Contest April

Craftsman's Guild June

Drawing Design Contest March

Design Contest May

Poster Contest January

Essay Contest March

Essay, Story, and Poetry Contest April

Essay Contest March

Essay Contest April

Essay Contest, Mayers Peace May

Essay Contest March

Essay Contest February

Essay Contest March

Essay Contest

Essay Contest November

Examination March

French Examination March

Latin Examination March

Essay Contest March

Oratorical Contest, Agricultural Subject October

Improved Benevolent and Protective Order of Elks of the World, 1915 Fourteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

National Americanism Committee of the American Legion, 777 North Meridian Street, Indianapolis, Indiana

National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters; Radio-Television Manufacturers Association; and U. S. Junior Chamber of Commerce, 1771 N Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

National Forensic League, Ripon, Wis.

New Farmers of America, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C.

Supreme Lodge, Knights of Pythias, 1054 Midland Bank Building, Minneapolis 1, Minnesota

Home Economics and Industrial Arts

Ford Motor Company, 300 Schaefer Road, Dearborn, Michigan

General Mills, Inc., 400 Second Avenue, South Minneapolis, Minnesota

National Red Cherry Institute, 322 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago 4, Ill.

Scholarships

American Baptist Convention, 152 Madison Ave., New York 16, N. Y.

Bausch and Lomb Optical Company, 635 St. Paul Street, Rochester 2, N. Y.

Broadcast Music, Inc., 580 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Consolidated Freightways, Inc., P. O. Box 1618, Portland 8, Oregon

Elks National Foundation Trustees, 16 Court Street, Boston 8, Massachusetts

National Restaurant Association, 8 South Michigan Street, Chicago, Ill.

New England Textile Foundation, 68 South Main Street, Providence, R. I.

Quill and Scroll Society, 111 West Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Illinois

Scholarship Board of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Science Service, 1719 N Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Miscellaneous

Future Scientists of America, National Science Teachers Assn., 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Oratorical Contest	April
Oratorical Contest	April
Voice of Democracy Radio Speech Contest	February
Forensic Contest	June
Forensic Contest	January
Oratorical Contest	August
Industrial Arts Awards	June
Examination	June
Baking Contest	February
Scholarships	November
Scholarships	March
Award for Original Music Compositions	December
Scholarships	April
Scholarships	March
Scholarships	April
Scholarships	January
Scholarships (Political Quiz II)	February
National Honor Society Scholarships	February
Science Talent Search	December
Science or Math Projects	April

National Society, Daughters of American Revolution, 1776 D Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Scholastic Magazine, Inc., 351 Fourth Avenue, New York 3, New York

Science Clubs of America-Science Service, 1719 N Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Good Citizen Award

April

Art, Writing, and Photography

March

National Science Fair

April

D. APPROVED LIST OF NATIONAL ACTIVITIES

(NO CONTESTS INCLUDED) FOR 1954-55

The Committee, in attempting to give professional service to all secondary schools, believes that all school youth should be obligated to attend school regularly as provided by the citizens who support and maintain these schools. It believes that "attending school" is the legal and proper business of school youth; educational trips can be taken during vacation periods according to established policy of all busy and occupied people of our country. The Committee in setting forth this approval list did not look with favor on any national activities that conflict with the regular school year. It assumes, also, that effective and qualified adult supervision will be provided in the administration of these activities.

Only national activities are included on this approved list where participants are regarded as representing the school or any school organization.

SPONSORING ORGANIZATION	MAIN OFFICE	WHEN HELD
American National Red Cross—Junior	Washington, D. C.	Late June
Boys' Nation	Indianapolis, Indiana	July
Distributive Education Clubs of America	Washington, D. C.	Late June or July
Future Business Leaders of America	Washington, D. C.	Late June or July
Future Homemakers of America	Washington 25, D. C.	July
Girls' Nation	Indianapolis, Indiana	July
Key Club International	Chicago, Illinois	July
National Association of Student Councils	Washington, D. C.	Late June
National 4-H Club Camp	Washington 25, D. C.	Late June
National 4-H Club Congress	Washington 25, D. C.	December
National Scholastic Press Association	Minneapolis, Minnesota	July or August
New Homemakers of America	Washington 25, D. C.	June

Democracy and the Public Schools

B. EVERARD BLANCHARD

AMONG the many problems facing secondary education today, a basic consideration given much emphasis tends to be focused toward the development of an educational program which will adequately prepare boys and girls for meeting contemporary issues as well as later adulthood situations. As a result, many school systems throughout the country are revising and re-defining the objectives of education. The diverse criticisms being levied by educators and lay patrons have tended to enliven experimental procedures which are bringing forth emerging programs which show much promise. To prepare youth adequately means providing them with purposeful and meaningful experiences radiating about the responsibilities of citizens, workers, and parents — a pattern of everyday living which all youth will eventually share with society. In providing these functional experiences, the inadequacy of the traditional curriculum is readily apparent. Accompanying the curricular changes, there is also a widespread acceptance of changes necessary in the methods of instruction and in the administration, organization, and supervisory aspects of the school program. In short, to some degree, every aspect of education seems to be affected by the increased emphasis being placed on youth and their needs.

From the numerous writings one may find in the literature of education, there appears to be a greater interest in the field of individual differences as contrasted with other patterns of learning. Teachers apparently are becoming more conscious of and sensitized to the way pupils may differ from one another in their personality traits, potential abilities, home environment, community influences, interests, and skills. A flexible program, capable of adjusting to a wide range of behavior patterns, appears to be replacing the "fit the child to the curriculum concept." According to the modern definition of evaluation, all the needs of pupils, and not merely their mental growth, are being given serious consideration by the modern secondary school. Among some of the more important phases being extended emphasis at this time are: (1) the student's health and physical well-being; (2) character and personality traits; (3) providing students with a sense of social values; and (4) providing experiences commensurate with the development of techniques of social action.

If students are to prepare for life today as well as tomorrow in the guise of capable citizens, the school of which they are a part should be closely related to

B. Everard Blanchard is Professor of Education at State Teachers College, Plymouth, New Hampshire.

the world and its problems. Every local community possesses human and natural resources which may be better organized for the common life. Channeling youth from the local school to the community to assist in projects covering general office work, creating recreational centers and possibly assisting in their operation, conducting community surveys, organizing clean-up campaigns, improving traffic control without losing sight of the general educational objectives, a modern school might utilize the community as a laboratory in which firsthand impressions could be achieved along political, social, and economic lines of endeavor.

To keep alive the spirit of public work and service, the school-community relations should be an integral part of our educational system. History records that our earliest political leaders were men who engaged in a fair portion of practical experience in the community. The early pioneer participated in many diverse community activities, such as helping the neighbor build his home, engaging in corn husking contests, co-operating in the building of roads and erecting churches with his fellowmen. Man and boy shared, side by side, where necessary, in defending his people against the Indian marauder in early times. While these characteristics peculiar to a by-gone age are now catalogued in the archives of history, new economic, social, and political factors of a national and international breadth are steadfastly making their presence known, and this calls for new technics of solution. Undoubtedly, co-operative planning in our schools is sorely needed today if we are to meet the problems of the present and the even greater challenges of tomorrow.

As Hedger points out,¹ the schools must face realistically their responsibility for preparing citizens to participate in the work of keeping institutional machinery geared to changing needs. There is no complete agreement among educators as to the nature and extent of such responsibility. At the left is a small group which holds that the school is responsible for reconstructing society. At the right is a group which insists that the school has for its chief function the preparation of youth for living in the existing social order. Neither of these points of view is entirely satisfactory. Changes in the social order should be the product of co-operation among all the institutions of society. The school is one institution among many whose function it is to promote the good of society. It is a question whether the school is contributing as much as it can and should to bring about social improvement. There seems to be abundant evidence that it has not realized its full possibilities in this respect.

Numerous examples may be cited to illustrate how various foreign countries have used their schools to change the attitudes, beliefs, skills, and understandings of their people. Sir Richard Livingstone in recent years has done much to publicize the Danish "folk school," purporting to find in it valuable suggestions for the reform of education in England. With others, he regards these folk

¹ Hedger, George A., et al., *An Introduction to Western Civilization*, New Edition, 1949, Odyssey Press, pp. 767-768.

schools as largely responsible for the transformation of Denmark into one of the most progressive and prosperous democracies in Europe before that country was submerged at the outset of World War II.²

It is the only great successful experiment in educating the masses of a nation. It has reached the very classes for which we have done little or nothing. It has taught them to care for subjects like history and literature which seem remote from the man in the street. It has transformed the country economically, given it a spiritual unity, and produced perhaps the only educated democracy in the world.³

The rise of the proletariat in Russia was bound to lead to a new orientation toward work and toward efforts to make the school a medium for enhancing the dignity of labor. Writing in the hey-day of polytechnical education, Pinkevitch asserted:⁴

Our pupil must feel himself as a member of and a worker in a laboring society; and the attainment of this result marks the first step toward an understanding of the interests of the proletariat and of the mutual struggle for the social revolution. Some four or five hours a week in a manual training class will achieve nothing in this direction. What is needed is an ideological concentration about this axis, an organic integration of labor with the scientific, artistic, and social work of the school.

Ghandi's plan for reconstructing Indian education proposes a rural national education through village handicrafts:⁵

And "through village handicrafts" means that the framers of the scheme expect the teachers to educate village children in their village so as to draw out all their faculties through some selected village handicrafts in an atmosphere free from superimposed restrictions and interference.

Hebrew education in Israel has faced a special problem which has made the occupational approach seem especially valuable and which has resulted in the development of Labor Schools on the elementary level which care for the educational needs of some twenty-two per cent of Israel's Jewish children.⁶

Accordingly, it becomes one of the chief responsibilities of the elementary school to see to it that every Jewish child in Palestine, no matter from what social group he comes, is impressed with the central importance of labor in the pioneer community in which he lives, is given some measure of manual and prevocational training, and is imbued with love for the soil and understanding of the economic structure of society, of natural processes and man's part in them, and of the significant role played by growth and change in all life.⁷

In each of these examples is seen the place of the school and education in a society undergoing change. Whether or not these particular trends will ultimately serve its constituency from a long-range viewpoint in enhancing the future potentialities of generations to come is a question. To guard against any

² Gold, Milton J., *Working To Learn*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951, pp. 82-83. Quoted by permission of the Bureau of Publications.

³ Livingstone, Sir Richard, *The Future in Education*. Cambridge, England: University Press, 1941, p. 44. Quoted by permission of the publishers.

⁴ Pinkevitch, Albert P., *The New Education in the Soviet Republic*, translated by N. Perlmutter and edited by O. S. Counts. New York: John Day Co., 1929, p. 155. Quoted by permission of the publishers.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 87.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 90.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 91.

radical departure from what may seem reasonable and at the same time encourage innovations until evidence of their usefulness can be substantiated is a pressing problem. In general, we might state that American secondary schools are confronted with a four-fold task; namely:

1. Encouraging the learner to acquire a value perspective.
2. Increasing the learner's social sensitivity.
3. Assisting the learner to acquire methods for deliberating objectively on social issues.
4. Aiding the learner to develop skills for social discussion and social action.

Numerous studies have pointed out the significance of students needing facts and generalizations about the structure and behavior of our society in order that their understanding of and sensitivity to other social groups shall be intelligent rather than sentimental.

The attainment of democratic ideals involves the development of citizens whose skillful practices are guided by democratic values, following courses of action chosen after mature thought which has utilized pertinent information.

The school curriculum must be conceived by each generation not as a fixed body of content and of experiences, but rather as a series of experiences carefully planned in terms of the educational functions to be achieved and emphasizing democratic principles throughout.

In a democracy, the large concern for the individual and his participation in the democratic process shapes the school program. Objectives which are set up in terms of the needs of the individual reflect the accompanying appreciation of the needs of the democratic society to be met through school activity directed in the interest of the individual learners. In declarations of educational purpose and function, the Educational Policies Commission has established objectives based upon needs of the individual as a person bearing responsibilities as well as rights in a democratic society. In such terms, the Commission fixed four large areas of educational purposes as⁸:

The objectives of self-realization: the inquiring mind; speech; reading; writing; number; sight and hearing; health knowledge; health habits; public health; recreation; intellectual interests; esthetic interests; character.

The objectives of human relationships: respect for humanity; friendships; co-operation; courtesy; appreciation of the home; conservation of the home; homemaking; democracy in the home.

The objectives of economic efficiency: work; occupational information; occupational choice; occupational efficiency; occupational adjustment; occupational appreciation; personal economics; consumer judgment; efficiency in buying; consumer protection.

The objectives of civic responsibility: social justice; social activity; social understanding; critical judgment; tolerance; conservation; social applications of science; world citizenship; law observance; economic literacy; political citizenship; devotion to democracy.

⁸ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1936, pp. 50, 72, 90, 108. Quoted by permission.

Secondary schools which may lean toward the practice of democratic principles in providing learning experiences for its pupils must continually guard such principles from possible undemocratic influences. For a clear conception of what may constitute desirable democratic principles, the Educational Policies Commission listed what it termed "the hallmarks of democratic education."⁹

1. Democratic education has as its central purpose the welfare of all the people.
2. Democratic education serves each individual with justice, seeking to provide equal educational opportunity for all, regardless of intelligence, race, religion, social status, economic condition, or vocational plans.
3. Democratic education respects the basic civil liberties in practice and clarifies their meaning through study.
4. Democratic education is concerned for the maintenance of those economic, political, and social conditions which are necessary for the enjoyment of liberty.
5. Democratic education guarantees to all the members of its community the right to share in determining the purposes and policies of education.
6. Democratic education uses democratic methods in classroom, administration, and student activities.
7. Democratic education makes efficient use of personnel, teaching respect for competence in positions of responsibility.
8. Democratic education teaches through experience that every privilege entails a corresponding duty, every authority a responsibility, every responsibility an accounting to the group which granted the privilege or authority.
9. Democratic education demonstrates that far-reaching changes, of both policies and procedures, can be carried out in orderly and peaceful fashion, when the decisions to make the changes have been reached by democratic means.
10. Democratic education liberates and uses the intelligence of all.
11. Democratic education equips citizens with the materials of knowledge needed for democratic efficiency.
12. Democratic education promotes loyalty to democracy by stressing positive understanding and appreciation and by summoning youth to service in a great cause.

Today the schools have been assigned a far more comprehensive and vital task—to prepare pupils for life in its numerous aspects. An attempt is being made to develop an educational program which will equip students for their future responsibilities as citizens, workers, and parents and which will help them to realize their full responsibilities. To some extent every aspect of education has been affected by the increased emphasis being placed on children and their needs.¹⁰

According to Kinney,¹¹ the school is not serving its primary function until it has helped the young citizens to acquire skill in the use of the techniques for democratic action and problem solving—group planning, using adult sources of information, co-operative action and evaluation of results. These are not enough,

⁹ Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940, pp. 35-39. Quoted by permission.

¹⁰ Works, George A., and Leaser, Simon O., *Rural America Today*. Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, 1942, p. 64. Used by permission of the University of Chicago Press.

¹¹ Kinney, Lucien B., "Developing Problem-Solving Skills in Adolescents," *The Education Digest*, XVII: 40-41, May, 1952.

however, unless he has identified his own welfare with that of the community. Only through carefully planned experiences in serving the community will he come to realize that what threatens society threatens him, and that what benefits society benefits him.

Two important facts so simple and obvious that they may be easily overlooked need to be kept in mind. The *first* is that it is the learner who learns. Purposeful learning requires active interest and concentration of the learner. The *second* fact may be regarded as a corollary of the first. Learning is a result both of what the learner does with learning material and what the material does to him.¹²

¹² Davis, Robert A., "Helping the Learner to Help Himself," *The Education Digest*, XVII: 39, April, 1952.

In Memoriam
HUGH HENRY STEWART
1881-1954

AN ESTEEMED former officer and president of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in the war years, 1943-44, passed away suddenly on July 31, 1954, in Mahopac, New York.

Dr. Stewart was a leader in secondary education and held many responsible positions of leadership throughout his long career. He was a teacher, a director, a principal and acting superintendent, and an inspiring leader, always industrious and determined to attain high goals in education. He served in many responsible and important educational positions and was president of the New York State Teachers Association, president of the Westchester County Vocational Club, president of the New York State Secondary-School Principals Association, and president of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. At the time of his retirement in 1945, he was principal of the A. B. Davis High School in Mount Vernon, New York.

Democratic Leadership in Secondary Education

PAUL A. MILLER

THIS research is a part of a ten-year program at the Ohio State University for studying leadership under the direction of the Personnel Research Board. Three years are being devoted to the study of educational leadership. This particular phase was jointly sponsored by the Personnel Research Board and the Bureau of Educational Research.

The inter-disciplinary approach was used. Personnel from psychology, economics, sociology, and education participated in different parts of the studies. In so far as possible, collaboration among the researchers was effected with each participant developing a particular phase of the work while carrying over findings from other areas into the new field.

The trend of thinking which gave impetus to the research under consideration has been summed up very well by Busch¹:

Lip-service is done to the democratic conception of life, but much of the apparent acceptance of democratic ideals is ritualistic rather than realistic . . . administrators rely heavily upon dominance . . . adulation is given the leader that gets things done . . . unless authoritarianism is harsh, it is a comfortable way of dealing with problems.

Our problem became one of developing a yardstick for leader-group behavior in high schools and then applying it to present-day situations.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this research was to study the functional adequacy of Ohio city high-school principals, evaluated by superintendents of schools, as related to democracy existing in high-school organizations seen by teachers.

To study democratic leadership, criteria for democratic leader-group behavior were established. The criteria were applied to 205 Ohio city high schools, or 74.8 per cent of those in the state of Ohio, by 622 teachers or 6.5 per cent of all the high-school teachers in the state—an average of more than three teachers per school.

To study the adequacy of high-school leadership as it particularly relates to the principal, superintendents in 88 Ohio cities, or 77.8 per cent of all the cities, evaluated principals in 218 high schools in terms of fourteen functions of leadership established by the staff of the Personnel Research Board at the Ohio

¹ Henry M. Busch, *Leadership in Group Work*, pp. 121-122.

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State University. Principals in 182 Ohio city high schools provided data concerning schools, teachers, superintendents, status factors, and time analyses.

The data came from three different sources—principals, superintendents, and teachers, at different times—fall, winter, and spring respectively, of the 1949-50 school year. When information was matched for completeness, 169 principals, 501 teachers, and 83 superintendents had supplied all necessary materials.

These data were arranged to be scored, sorted, and analyzed on IBM (International Business Machines) equipment. Information was condensed to provide 131 different pieces of coded material for three decks of IBM cards—A-deck, 77 items; B-deck, 22 items; and C-deck, 22 items. Each of the three decks had 52 duplicate items. The criteria were scored on an IBM scoring machine.

To accomplish the project, letters of invitation and other materials were sent through the courtesy of the sponsoring agencies.

CRITERIA FOR DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

A list of 134 criteria for democratic leader-group behavior was established from 209 descriptions which had been evaluated in terms of the ideal democratically administered high school by 30 experts in secondary education from all parts of the United States. Thirty-two other judges screened the 209 descriptions from among 1,179 items found in the literature.

These criteria were incorporated into an inquiry and presented to teachers so that they could evaluate their high schools according to the five-point scale accompanying each criterion. As a result, the average high school received a score of 116.5, or 71.7 per cent of the total possible score of ± 268 . On the five-point scale provided, this indicates that schools are "fairly" democratic. Twelve schools received scores indicating non-democratic tendencies and ten schools were given high democratic ratings. The number of criteria in each of four classifications together with the mean score and the percentage the mean score is of the total are reported below:

<i>Criteria Classification</i>	<i>Number or Criteria</i>	<i>Mean Score</i>	<i>Percentage of Total Score</i>
Fundamental Concepts	10	8.2	70.5
Organization	6	3.2	63.3
Principal Description	75	71.6	73.9
Staff Description	43	32.2	68.7
Total Democracy	134	116.5	71.7

The twenty-four criteria most characteristic of Ohio city high schools are interpreted on the succeeding page. A close examination of these descriptions reveals that principals are skilled in the art of human relations with teachers, pupils, and the community. Teachers are free to help select materials, books, and to arrange their own courses of study but go little further in administrative

participation. Teachers scored their schools higher on some criteria than others. Those criteria most characteristic of schools in order of their acceptance by teachers are as follows:

Fundamental Concepts

1. Learning takes place in the process of doing.
2. Most teachers are capable of managing themselves.

The Principal

1. He does *not* select the textbooks for teachers' use.
2. He does *not* pit one teacher against another.
3. He expects the school to achieve as much as possible for each individual.
4. He does *not* play one teacher against another.
5. He does *not* lord it over the other members of the staff.
6. He does *not* discourage teachers from pursuing their individual aims.
7. He does *not* discourage teachers from occupying positions of leadership.
8. He respects all youth regardless of social or economic standing.
9. He does *not* prepare the courses of study for the teachers.
10. He is friendly and approachable with teachers and pupils.
11. He is well acquainted with the community and its problems.
12. He does *not* dominate the other members of the staff for personal reasons.
13. He does *not* "ride" teachers who make mistakes.
14. He is easy to work with.
15. He is *not* austere and aloof from the other members of the staff.
16. He does *not* break rules he wouldn't permit others to break.
17. He does *not* criticize teachers before other members of the staff.
18. He trusts the other members of the staff.

The Teachers

1. Teachers do *not* insist that the principal outline their work for them.
2. Teachers help select textbooks.
3. Teachers are free to experiment with different methods of teaching.
4. Teachers help select their supplies and equipment.

By contrast, those criteria which are least characteristic of Ohio city high schools are shown below. An analysis of these items reveals that operational techniques of democratic organization are generally lacking.

Fundamental Concepts

1. Teachers "tend to agree" that leadership ability is a gift that only a few possess.
2. Teachers are "undecided" about whether or not leadership is confined to the thinking of a few capable individuals.

Organization

1. A professional relations committee only "once in a while" promotes in-service growth of teachers.
2. Teachers "occasionally" dominate their students.
3. The arrangement of the school organization aids the co-operative efforts of the group "to some degree."

The Principal

1. He "generally" plans the school program without the help of the teachers.
2. He "occasionally" speaks in a manner not to be questioned.
3. He generates "only a little" power of leadership in others.
4. He develops in others "only a little" power for initiating action.
5. He acts as a boss "once in a while."
6. Most principals sympathetically counsel teachers and pupils "fairly much" with their personal problems; however, quite a few do so only "once in a while."

7. He makes it possible for students to participate "to some degree" in the administration of the school.
8. He displays skill "to some degree" in the use of co-operative techniques.

The Teachers

1. Teachers are "fairly often" propelled by the aims of the principal.
2. Teachers clarify faculty issues through faculty forums "only once in a while."
3. Teachers help interpret "to some degree" the school to the public through an organized public relations program.
4. Teachers help "to some degree" with the planning of the supervisory program.
5. Teachers help "to some degree" with the evaluation of their own professional growth.
6. Teachers help "to some degree" with the evaluation of salary schedules.
7. Teachers only "occasionally" help the principal through advisory groups.
8. Teachers "occasionally," if not frequently, co-operate in their research upon common problems.
9. Teachers "occasionally" help induce new staff members into the faculty.
10. Teachers help organize the curriculum "to some degree."
11. Teachers share "to some degree" with the principal in determining their conditions of work.

It is quite evident that many co-operative techniques are only used "to some degree" in the operation of high schools.

THE CRITERIA FOR FUNCTIONAL ADEQUACY

Fourteen leadership functions developed by the Personnel Research Board at the Ohio State University were used as criteria against which principals were evaluated by their superintendents. Leadership to function adequately and efficiently must be concerned with inspection, research, planning, preparing procedures, co-ordination of personnel, evaluation of progress, interpretation of direction, supervision, teacher personnel, pupil personnel, public relations, professional performance, professional consultation, and materials and supplies. Superintendents were asked how adequately principals performed these functions—entirely, fairly, to some degree, only slightly, or not at all. Each principal was scored on each function as well as on total adequacy. The average score indicated that principals are "fairly adequate" and efficient. One out of eight, or 12.9 per cent, of the principals are considered "entirely adequate"; 51.4 per cent "fairly adequate"; and 35.7 per cent "adequate to some degree."

RELATIONSHIP OF DEMOCRATIC LEADER-GROUP BEHAVIOR AND FUNCTIONAL ADEQUACY

An objective analysis of the adequacy or efficiency of principals, defined in terms of fourteen functions, judged by superintendents and related to democracy, defined according to 134 leader-group behavior descriptions applied as criteria by teachers to their schools, reveals a statistically significant coefficient of correlation of .217 at the .01 level of probability. Nine of the fourteen functions are significantly related to democracy as follows:

<i>Function</i>	<i>Coefficient of Correlation</i>
Personnel	.276
Co-ordination	.245
Research	.217
Public Relations	.194
Interpretation	.181
Pupils	.179
Consultation	.167
Evaluation	.163
Inspection	.153
Total Adequacy	.217

In terms of time spent on each of the functions, it is significant to find that principals who spend more time with teachers and less time on pupils receive higher democracy and adequacy scores. The coefficients are as follows:

<i>Function</i>	<i>Democracy</i>	<i>Adequacy</i>
Supervision	.139	.179
Personnel	.184	.067
Pupils	— .210	— .207

BASIC INFORMATION

The average teacher in this study is 44.0 years of age and has taught 21.4 years—13.8 in the same school. He has 1.7 dependents, 152.5 semester hours, or an equivalent of five years of educational preparation. Teachers who gave highest democracy scores were slightly older (46.9 years), had fewer dependents (1.4), and had greater teaching experience (22.8 years).

Significantly more women gave higher democracy scores than men; more single people gave higher scores than married persons. Industrial arts and mathematics teachers gave significantly lower scores than others. Foreign language teachers gave higher scores.

The average school receiving a high democracy score was larger, had more teachers, had an older principal, and was located in the middle class section of the city. The average school had 854 pupils and 41.4 teachers (17.3 men). Younger principals received highest adequacy ratings.

TIME SPENT BY PRINCIPALS

The principal in most democratic schools spends 74.9 per cent of his time in contact with people and 25.1 per cent of his time in individual effort. Of the time he spends in contact with people, 29.8 per cent is taken by students, 17.6 per cent by assistants and teachers, and 9.1 per cent with outside persons. Of the time spent in individual effort, 35.0 per cent is spent observing the work of pupils, teachers, and custodians; 9.6 per cent reading and answering mail; and 11.0 per cent reflecting on plans and procedures. The principal spends most of his time on six of the administrative functions:

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Function</i>	<i>Average School</i>	<i>Most Democratic School</i>
1	Supervision	14.1%	16.3%
2	Pupils	16.1%	14.4%
3	Planning	9.2%	10.2%
4	Evaluation	7.2%	8.1%
5	Co-ordination	8.1%	7.7%
6	Personnel	6.4%	4.8%

STATUS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO DEMOCRACY

Higher status is given to leadership in schools receiving high democracy scores. Superintendents are given "high" status, principals "fairly high" status, and teachers "average" status. Both principals and teachers see themselves higher in status than others see them. Teachers see significantly less difference in status between themselves and superintendents in most democratic schools; however, teachers see more difference between the principal and themselves in most democratic schools.

Teachers give lower democracy scores to schools where the principals have pronounced status attitudes and perceive wide status differences in society as desirable. Teachers also give lower democracy scores to schools where principals give themselves high status and receive high adequacy ratings from superintendents. This is evidence of administrative cliquishness, stratification, and isolation.

MAJOR CONCLUSIONS

1. Ohio high schools are fairly democratic, have principals who are fairly adequate in performing administrative functions and who are fairly skilled in the human relations required of co-operative endeavor.
2. Schools are generally lacking in organization characteristics which would encourage wider democratic participation of all personnel.
3. Administrative efficiency increases with an increase in democratic leader-group behavior.
4. In democratic schools the principal and the staff of teachers spend a greater portion of time together in close working relationship.
5. Status increases with democracy in schools; democracy decreases with administrative stratification.

IMPLICATIONS

The evidence accumulated in this study emphasizes that democratic leader-group behavior increases administrative effectiveness. A weakness in present school operation appears to be in organization for effective participation of members of the group. On the other hand, the personal qualities of both teachers and principals are suitable for democratic organization. Therefore, the

following guiding principles are suggested as a foundation upon which to build more adequate democratic schools:

1. That each group member fully realize his potential and responsibility for leadership.
2. That the fundamental concepts of democracy be understood by all group members.
3. That designated leadership at all levels avoid clique formation and isolation.
4. That shared goals be co-operatively established and clearly defined.
5. That group member roles be clearly understood in order to carry out the plans for group action.
6. That complete fluidity among group members be maintained through social, professional, and recreational means in order to facilitate communication among all members.
7. That designated leadership keep in close contact with personnel.
8. That all group members be continually aware of progress toward shared goals.
9. That designated leadership act as a catalytic agent to help all members accomplish individual and group purposes.
10. That dominance of purpose rather than of people prevail among group members.
11. That the whole is more than the sum of its parts be a fundamental axiom for group thinking.
12. That each individual feel free to develop himself to the fullest of his potential without restriction except through natural consequences detrimental to others.
13. That decision-making responsibilities be clearly established.
14. That authority for action be clearly defined.

These fourteen principles imply goals, organized action to accomplish the goals, and leadership designated to help find the shortest path to the goals. It is assumed that the principal as designated leader is also the most influential member of the group in whom decision making is vested. Shared goals provide the impelling force; small groups do the work; leaders of small groups together with designated leadership check progress and direction; then initiate new action.

Since goals of education are largely concerned with curriculum, material, and personnel, group organization will of necessity encompass these areas. An organization chart would show assignments to these specialized problems. From time to time other groups would be formed long enough to take care of specific problems of current nature. Communication of ideas would flow two ways, *i.e.*, from group member to group or designated leader and back. Success of the group

will vary in terms of effective communication to each member. Therefore, the responsibility of leadership rests in ability to influence the highest potential of individual members toward shared goals.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The five major conclusions point to the following recommendations:

1. That principals, teachers, parents, and pupils examine the school organization to bring about more co-operative face-to-face relationships concerning mutual problems and goals.
2. That all personnel exhibit more democratic behavior and less dominance in human relations.
3. That educators discard the notion that administrative efficiency and democratic behavior are incompatible to make a conscious effort to organize high schools for real human effectiveness.
4. That more time be spent in group endeavor rather than in isolation.
5. That the administration arrange itself to avoid stratification and isolation from other personnel.

THE NEW U. S. DEPUTY COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

JAMES KENNETH LITTLE, of Madison, Wisconsin, has been appointed as Deputy Commissioner of Education. The position has been vacant since Rall I. Grigsby, the former deputy, accepted the position of Assistant Commissioner for School Assistance in Federally-Affected Areas. Dr. Little, Vice President of the University of Wisconsin since 1945, assumed his new position in the Office of Education under Commissioner of Education S. M. Brownell on June 1. He has had extensive experience in school and college teaching and administration and as a psychological consultant for the improvement of supervisory and executive training in industry as a consultant to Stevenson, Jordan and Harrison, Inc., a firm of management engineers in Chicago.

At the University of Wisconsin, Dr. Little was responsible for directing the student personnel program, including admissions, registration, student discipline, financial aid, and activities. From 1934 to 1944 at the same University he served as assistant professor, associate professor, and professor, as chairman of the department of education and acting dean of the school of education. He also directed the University's extension program in the field of education. He was president of the department of Higher Education of the National Education Association in 1950, and holds membership in the American Psychological Association, the National Education Association, and the American Association of School Administrators.

Freedom of the Teacher To Teach and the Student To Learn

PAUL BIXLER

FREEDOM of the teacher to teach and of the student to learn is commonly called academic freedom. In these days defenders of intellectual inquiry have often sought to show its relation to other individual and civil freedoms, for example, freedom of speech and of the press. It seems quite likely that, in our technological and closely knit world, it may be impossible to lose one individual freedom without losing or at least impairing others.

One will not find much protection for academic freedom in the law either. Teachers are under contract, and some schools have been chartered by the state; but the freedom to teach and to learn has seldom been noted in law except by implication—except, for example, as that freedom is circumscribed by loyalty oaths or by other requirements. In the Bill of Rights which has meant so much in the protection of other individual rights, academic freedom has not been mentioned, nor can one fairly contend that it is even implied. Still, I am not so sure that legal and other omissions will prove to be unfortunate. What one earns for one's self is *well* earned. Our system of education is something new in the world. If, in this country and in our time, we are to have academic freedom—that is, the freedom to learn and to teach—then the teachers and students to whom it matters and those many others who also appreciate it are going to have to go to work, building on what we already have, and earn it.

One cannot understand the problem of academic freedom without seeing it against the backdrop of current events and in the light of public opinion. The drama of teaching and learning is being played out today against a setting of hesitation and caution, if not of fear. Most of us are made anxious by the knowledge that we live in an atomic age and that technological change has outrun our ability to control it in the interests of men. We are disturbed also by a world responsibility which we did not really want and which has been thrust upon us in the incredible space of one short decade. It is doubtful that as a people we have, as yet, psychologically accepted that world responsibility with the idea that we can fully discharge it. Our allies overseas exaggerate the impact of McCarthyism on American and world relationships, but what they may appreciate better

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than we do is that McCarthyism is a front for America First. The pampered bully boy of the Senate would not be half so malignant an operator were it not that he has been leading the forces of an isolationism that is a long-run threat to our national security. If anyone is in doubt, it is from this source that springs the drive to suppress consideration and discussion of published materials about the United Nations and the work of UNESCO.

We have come to fear communism without being fully certain of what it is. Sabotage and treason are not new phenomena in American history, and, however seriously one may evaluate communist conspiracy in American industry and government, it has been a limited affair. Not so the dishonesty of method and perversion of language which the communist has spread everywhere. Do we fully understand the disaster to communication when communist schools are dedicated to Lincoln, Jefferson, and Whitman; when a militant totalitarianism is sold to millions under a "peace" appeal or as a "people's democracy"; when the devotees or apologists for a police state ask a hearing as defenders of civil liberty; when the world's greatest orthodoxy presumes to lead the political left? Do we fully understand the damage to American faith and democratic morality when an Alger Hiss arrogantly turns his back on his own respectability and his many non-communist friends before a Congressional committee? In the end, his brazen betrayal of courage and integrity may seem a greater crime than whatever espionage he and his cell were able to commit.

If democratic symbols and procedures have been under question because of attacks by communists and McCarthyites alike, so also has the role of the intellectual. The growing distrust of the intellectual in this country is in part a tribute to his increasing strength, but in part it simply ties back into our anxiety over the atomic age, for which we seek an easy scapegoat—the intellectual being the nearest scapegoat at hand.

Ninety per cent of Americans consider that they belong to the middle class. But in fact, this mass breaks down into many smaller groups, some of which are definitely and belligerently low-brow. Some of them might be tagged as lower middle class. They are provincial, less educated than others in their same economic bracket, and small-town (though some individuals live in large towns). They are fairly well off, they have become restive, and they are inarticulate. They tend to line up against such ideas as academic freedom, and they are the traditional opponents of the intellectuals, who sometimes refer to them as Philistines. But suppose, having no organized proletariat to worry about, we consciously tried to bring these people into our educational commonwealth. Some of the tools are already at hand. Last year a quarter billion paperback books were printed and sold in drugstores and at newsstands at a price anyone can pay for anything. Though some of these books were published to pander to the lowest taste, the bulk of them are entertaining and sound. Historically, books and reading have been upperclass, often with more than a touch of snobbishness about

them. There is good reason now to declare the paperback book a tool of democracy.

Because of this interchange I was moved to make a brief examination of Germany. In the nineteenth century German academic freedom was the most celebrated in the world; it surpassed that obtained both in England and America. German teachers pretty much ran their own show the way they wanted to run it. But when Hitler came the whole system collapsed. What happened? I cannot give the whole story, but I am convinced that one of the chief reasons was that university life was not well grounded in German society. University thought was free and pure as air, but in the days of the Nazi storm and stress it was helpless because it was irrelevant. It had no connection with German life or reality; it had no application and no influence on social developments.

For good or ill—and I think for good—our educational system has taken a different track. Our schools are rooted in the community and take much of their life from it. The battle for the freedom to teach and to learn is being fought out there, and whether it is won or lost will depend, I think, on teachers, students, the community in which they live and their interrelationships.

What is happening in our communities today? You probably know as well as I do. You surely have heard about the Robin Hood story in Indianapolis. You probably know that Frank Magruder's *American Government*, revised for the 36th time, was nevertheless dropped as a basic text from the schools in Chicago—as it has been in a number of other communities—because a reviewer and a radio commentator collaborated in calling the book names. You probably don't know the one about the southern university that loaned its auditorium for a series of book reviews by outside speakers but suddenly cancelled its permission when it was announced that the next book to be reviewed would be Whittaker Chambers' *Witness*. The dean explained that the university didn't want its facilities used for anything, *but anything*, having to do with communism.

I got out a little newsletter on intellectual freedom from time to time. My first impulse was to treat most of the items set down there as atrocity stories. But of course they are not, at least most of them are not. What is happening in many of our communities is a painful kind of education. A few people have been hurt; some errors have been made. Some incidents have been ludicrous, some horrible, and many more downright stupid. But nearly all of it is education, in one fashion or another. My impression is that there has not been a great deal of suppression or of outright censorship, but that there have been many attempts at both and there has been a definite increase in caution and hesitation and in some cases of fear on the part of teachers. I believe that the situation is more serious in schools than in colleges or public libraries. Some teachers and librarians have become hesitant or fearful of handling "controversial" materials and questions. And I may add parenthetically that as a sign of the times the word "controversial" itself is becoming one of the most abused

terms in the language. Frankly I do not know how to total the permanent damage. The silent hurt to individual teachers and school systems may not show up for a while; it may well be more serious than what has already appeared, and goodness knows what has happened openly is serious enough.

I do not know any better cure for the present condition in our communities than more education—not just the education that occurs in the classroom, though that has its place too, but the education that should take place in the community about the schools. A controversy over the schools or over any part of the teaching or learning system should not be an excuse for retreat or for going on the defensive, but should be an opportunity for education and for improved democratic practice. If inquiry into public education could become a great debate, that in itself would fulfill one significant educational function. We are the first nation to develop a school system from all the people. Perhaps we have no greater duty in the community than exhibiting skill in handling educational disputes in public by discussion, in exhibiting the reality and effectiveness of democratic methods in controversy. Public education, after all, ought to be an example if not a symbol of how democracy works.

I am not necessarily following here the suggestion made recently that professional and lay leaders responsible for public education attempt to take the initiative from Congressional committees investigating communists in the schools by setting up their own investigating groups. This is a problem in itself, and my first reaction to the suggestion of establishing state or local investigating bodies is to be dubious about it. But I do suggest that the school look upon educational controversy in their communities as normal and take a positive attitude toward it. I am aware, of course, that this kind of attitude cannot be successful in the long run unless the schools themselves act upon the suggestion in a recent report of the National Council of Teachers of English and refuse to exclude controversial issues from the classroom.

It goes almost without saying, I think, that critics of what is taught in the schools or of what is used as teaching material should be approached openly, though not necessarily in public meetings. Their questions should be answered. When a dispute arises, it is helpful also if community leaders, such as newspaper editors, are already informed and sympathetic to what the schools are attempting to do. School superintendents and other administrative officers would do well to see that teachers come in contact with specialists in the community who deal with areas of knowledge taught in the schools.

The relation of free enterprise to free inquiry should be made plain to the community. In these days business and industry are more and more dependent on the results of research by experienced and objective investigators, many of them not only trained in educational institutions but still holding positions in such institutions. Free inquiry is essentially free enterprise applied to ideas. And it should be made plain to the man who shouts for free enterprise but

draws the line at academic freedom or free inquiry that he may in the end simply be cutting off his nose to spite his face.

What of the teacher's part in academic freedom? Some of the important surrounding elements here are not entirely within his control. There is the question of morale on the staff with which he is associated and of economic and psychological security. If the teacher knows in his heart that he is faced with the problem of speaking out or keeping silent on a particular issue, let him recall when he weighs his decision that he ought not to use a sense of bad morale or of insecurity as an excuse to hold his peace.

Perhaps the chief enemy of freedom in these days is conformity. This has been said over and over again, but the term is usually undefined; it is simply assumed to mean a knuckling under to McCarthyism, a rejection of communism in favor of a domestic authoritarianism, the abject adoption of a current orthodoxy. This is shocking and to be deplored. But there are other conformities, and we should be aware of them and differentiate among them.

For myself I could wish there was *more* conformity in some areas. I should be glad to see more conformity in speaking freely, in letting the other person have his say, in striving for objectivity, in going along with a democratic decision when it has been made, though one reserves the right to work to change that decision at another time if such effort seems necessary and wise. Never fear that we should all reach this perfect goal or that we should ever become democratic angels.

Most conformities, however, do seem to have something of the unhappy about them, for they represent depersonalized opinions—opinions arrived at not through individual reasoning or the examination of facts, but by the adoption of a group attitude. Conformities can be found today in all ranges of the political spectrum. And though they are not consciously sought, conformities appear among some devotees of academic freedom. When the Broyles Committee investigated the University of Chicago, its members suggested that the Communist Manifesto and other works by Marx and Engels be dropped from a course at the college in general education. Some of the teachers of the course had already considered dropping these works because, as David Riesman describes it, for one thing, "the students had not yet had any historical background to understand the portrait of English industrial misery in the 1840's," but under the pressure of the investigation, the works were kept. When Professor Riesman dispassionately examined this and similar attitudes in the intellectual world before a college audience, he was accused of McCarthyism. I do not see how one can prefer that exhibition of conformity to that which is more commonly called conformity.

In reality the teacher cannot always escape conformity, for who among us can be nonconformist seven days a week? Let him, however, examine organized opinion for what it is and let him make up his own mind whenever he can. And let him try to be objective. This is a subject—objectivity—which badly

needs to be re-examined. We have grown careless about it, and the newspapers, in particular, have made out of it a mechanical gadget which violates the spirit if not the letter of objectivity. It is not objectivity to print the privileged charge of a McCarthy one day and the frantic denial by the slandered witness the next. Nor, to choose another example, are European "neutralists" objective when they "equally reject" the United States and Soviet Russia with the comment "a plague on both your houses." Some background is necessary to indicate that McCarthy and his victim are not equal before the law, or that a democracy is not to be equated with a police state.

The statement of the American Association of University Professors on the responsibility of academic freedom says that the "teacher should not introduce controversial matter which has no relation to his subject" into the classroom, that he should at all times be accurate, should exercise appropriate restraints, should show respect for the opinion of others. A recent report of the National Council of the Teachers of English now adds appropriately that he should not exclude controversial issues or materials from his teaching.

Concerning free inquiry, it is commonly said that there are two sides to every question. The truth is that there are usually *more than* two sides. Particularly is this true when a problem like communism or McCarthyism demands public attention. The communists have long labelled anyone who opposed them as fascist. And now Senator McCarthy has used the same method to insinuate that anyone who doesn't agree with him is sympathetic to communism. The tendency of communism and McCarthyism is to feed upon each other. Their ambition is to share a monopoly of attention, to drive out anything which interferes with that monopoly. What helps one strangely helps the other until reason and the comprehension of fact are destroyed, and all is tumult and shouting and frenzy. I am not suggesting that we ignore communism and McCarthyism, but simply that the truth is somewhere else. That there are three or more sides to most issues can be demonstrated also by an examination of all the books in any one classification on the shelves of almost any library.

It is my impression that most films and recordings dealing with aspects of controversy are more often the expression of group opinions than of the ideas of individuals. They have an organized opinion to sell. One might attempt to get materials of competing viewpoints to use also, but these are usually; I suspect, unavailable. There devolves then upon the teacher or exhibitor the need to show the film or play the recording more than once, to open it up to full discussion, to use with care the materials which accompany it. Most significant is background material—both that from which the audio or visual material has been constructed and that which was ignored or neglected. Students should be sent to the library where one would hope that a variety of views on the subject would be found. An interesting device was invented at the Peoria, Illinois, public library when a community dispute arose over the value of some documentary films. It was decided to invite representatives of

all civic organizations to previews of all new films. They set down their reactions and a large folder was made up of these opinions and offered but not thrust upon anyone who later wanted to borrow the film. This device is like the *Book Review Digest* used by librarians and others to get competing opinions about books for purchase or possible reading. Perhaps it is adaptable in some form to use in schools and colleges.

Now what of the student's freedom to learn? I have left this until last and will not be able to give it great attention, for I feel the student's freedom to learn greatly depends upon the teacher's freedom to teach; or perhaps I should say that the student's freedom cannot develop within the school system independently of the teacher's freedom. For a student to have the opportunity to learn, one must already assume that the teacher has the freedom to teach.

The student is faced with the same world responsibility and is beset by the same fear of communism as the teacher; he will meet a similar distrust of the intellectual. He will possibly find his right to learn contested in his own community and maybe he will have to join the battle for it. If he will pursue democratic methods in learning, he will come sooner or later to see the value of free enterprise in ideas.

I would urge upon students much the same attitudes as I do upon teachers. Let them have the courage to speak out. Let them avoid conformity when they can, let them try to be objective, and let them be wary or at least conscious of organized opinion. Let them understand that there are usually more than two sides to a problem. Let them, in other words, be educable.

The education of many students is finished before college. We are demanding more and more of them at a younger and younger age. It is possible in the not too distant future that they will vote after their eighteenth birthday. Are we to let them educate themselves on public issues only after they have left school? And are we to send boys out to fight communism at eighteen, nineteen, and twenty without knowing anything about it or knowing only what they have been told in a one-way monologue. It does not seem reasonable.

In that connection let me say a word about Korea. The war fought there was first called a police action and later a limited war. When it was over, it was said that we had lost the war or at best it had turned out a stalemate. These estimates may be accurate if you measure wars in terms of such physical items as the ground won or lost. But in larger terms, in terms of the war for men's minds, in terms of allegiance to the causes for which the war was fought, we won a clear victory. Measure it by the number of defections from among the prisoners on each side, and the proportion runs about 50 to 1. Democracy should always have such odds! We have never fully understood an ideological war, but we can be sure that the communists do. They seem willing to spend the lives of their fighting men like water if by that hazard they are able to gain new converts to their faith. In Korea they lost the war, since for almost the first time the free world definitely won a struggle for allegiance.

The war for men's minds turns upon what is *in* men's minds and, of course, that relates to their education. I would not suggest that the small number of defections from our army under stress of stockade and propaganda was solely due to our educational system, but I am sure that we have undervalued its part in such struggles just as we have undervalued the nature of our action in Korea and just as we have underrated psychological warfare.

The final odds for democracy as against totalitarianism, for free inquiry as against indoctrination and the closed mind are certainly not 50 to 1; they may be no better than even. But we can improve the odds, whatever they are, if we believe that teachers should have freedom to teach and students have freedom to learn, and then if all of us go to work at obtaining and maintaining those freedoms.

A Proper Setting For Learning

HOMER T. ROSENBERGER

IT IS more important to create in children and youth the desire to learn than to teach them isolated facts. If the desire is created, learning will find its way. If teaching is forced, the learning may proceed very slowly. The types of atmosphere—the setting, the environment—created by the teacher is a determining factor in the progress of the young pupil or the older student. The school which lacks an atmosphere for vital learning may do to the mind what cooking does to the palatability of fresh, tender, crisp celery or what a half hour of strong sunshine does to the eye appeal and tastiness of a dish of ice cream.

Learning should be an adventure rather than a chore. There is no good reason for making of it a painful process. Learning does not suffer loss of prestige by being made interesting. The successful use of teaching techniques and school facilities and equipment is a mighty factor in producing a thirst for knowledge.

ATMOSPHERE AND LEARNING

In educating anyone—children, adults, friends, or conquered people—it is necessary to avoid merely applying a veneer. To take root and blossom out, education must be planted within an individual. The interest of the person to be educated must be aroused. If education is forced on people in a mechanical way, it is likely to be of little value and may soon peel off.

Willingness to learn is a commendable quality. However, the significant thing in education is to create in children and youth not only a willingness but also a *desire* to learn. Motivation should be provided in order to create that desire. It is difficult to teach even the ABC's of anything to one who does not want to learn. *Motivation*, therefore, is extremely important in education. Unless the interest of both teacher and learner is aroused and maintained, much time is wasted. An atmosphere for vital learning should be established and the class immersed in it. This atmosphere ought to be of the type which makes the class members realize that the learning to be undertaken is actually important. It should be an atmosphere of "this is of value, we want to learn about it." Without this type of setting for learning, older children and youth may hope that the school building will catch fire or may yearn to quit school completely.

Many magazines with articles written interestingly and illustrated in color, numerous feature and newsreel motion pictures, carefully prepared radio and television programs, and innumerable, extensive exhibits prepared by industry

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and government come to the attention of those who attend school. Consequently, providing in school an atmosphere for vital learning requires use of ingenuity. Not just anything will do in the classroom. The school is in competition with outside influences. After having outside educational media at their finger tips almost every day, many in school will consider it dull if the classrooms in which they find themselves have less to catch the eye and ear. They will then probably not be stimulated by the school to consider its work as being vital.

Teachers teach but in order for their teaching to be effective the learner must learn. A teacher is one who assists another to learn. Assisting persons to learn sometimes requires much skill and ingenuity, at other times little. When the learner needs and wants assistance, the teacher can do a great deal to speed learning. A good teacher establishes an atmosphere which creates the desire to learn. Stimulating another to want to learn is a major part of the successful teacher's work. The teacher can tell and show, and frequently can do both in a clear and dramatic way. But the teacher cannot force an individual to learn, except in relatively rare instances such as placing a small child's hand repeatedly on a hot stove to teach him that it burns. The teacher does not *learn* for the student. The learner does the learning. It cannot be done for him. The student needs to have this fact emphasized just as the teacher must recognize this fact. Knowledge is not driven into a person like nails into wood.

Even though a person usually cannot be forced to learn, he or she can be helped in the learning process. Receptivity on the part of the learner is essential. In order to learn in a classroom, or anywhere else, it is necessary for the learner to react to the instruction or to an experience. The teacher can motivate, clarify, set an atmosphere of the proper type, provide general reference materials, laboratory equipment, specific, relevant case studies, and the like. But the learner does the learning if he learns. The teaching-learning process is expedited greatly by teamwork. In school the teaching-learning process ought to be a matter of teamwork between teacher and pupil. This teamwork can almost always be noticed where an atmosphere for vital learning exists.

In organized instruction carried on in a classroom, laboratory, or vocational shop, the architectural surroundings (layout, acoustics, and state of repair), the degree of cleanliness, and the type, amount, attractiveness, and arrangement of furnishings all play a part in building a good or bad atmosphere for learning. Good lighting, a gentle circulation of fresh air for a comfortable temperature, and elimination of disturbing noises help provide a proper setting for learning. The Twenty-Seventh Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators was published in 1949 and is entitled *American School Buildings*. That volume includes a vast amount of information about designing, renovating, and equipping buildings so as to facilitate an atmosphere for learning.

Over the centuries great thinkers, such as Plato (429-347 B.C.), Francis Bacon (1561-1626), Friedrich Froebel (1782-1852), Ralph Waldo Emerson

(1803-1882), Herbert Spencer (1820-1903), and Edward L. Thorndike (1874-1949), have recognized that learning proceeds from a three-step process, as follows: (1) readiness, (2) satisfaction, and (3) repetition. This three-step process suggests that the learner request the instruction or at least be told what it is about and why it will be of benefit to *him*. Instructing at a time when the learner is not interested is somewhat like driving an automobile down town and back with the emergency brake not released. It is just as important to get the learner in the correct frame of mind for learning as it is to prepare a field before planting. If the learner is not ready for the instructing because of not yet being interested in it, or because it is too difficult for him, the instructing will not be effective for him. Instructing him then will be much like throwing grains of corn into a flooded low spot in an unplowed field. The results will be as disappointing as a seed that does not germinate.

Learning usually should produce satisfaction. If an assignment claims the learner's attention and interest and the instructing is done clearly and at a speed geared to the student's rate of learning, he is likely to obtain *satisfaction* from the teaching. Learning for him, then, will have proceeded through the second step.

No matter how ready the learner may have been, if instructing is speeded beyond his rate of comprehension, the situation is akin to accelerating an automobile motor to the point of flooding the carburetor. In either instance the result fails to produce satisfaction (unless flooding is desired!). Instruction which is good and which starts slowly when the learner is ready and then speeds in proportion to the learner's rate of learning produces *satisfaction*.

When possible to do so, each item of instruction should be related to something which the student has already learned. This results in association of ideas and likelihood of understanding the new. Understanding the new, in turn, is likely to produce satisfaction for the learner.

Since people learn to do by doing and since most persons have difficulty in grasping abstract instruction, such as a formal lecture dealing with complex matters, it is well to stress learner activity rather than regard a group of students in a classroom as a silent, thoughtful, absorbing audience. This stress on learner activity is particularly appropriate below the college level.

In some classes the teacher is hard put to devise sufficient ways to produce learner activity of a learn-to-do-by-doing type. In classes dealing with commercial subjects, especially typewriting and shorthand, and in vocational shops, the problem is negligible. The student performs a task or operation about which instruction is being given. In almost any class a student can be asked to work out a problem which is being explained or to summarize a topic orally for the group.

When the pupil learns to do by doing, he or she can see tangible results of the instructing and study, and from this realization can receive satisfaction. The learner should receive pleasure or a sense of real value from the instruction,

or both. If both of these are lacking, step two in the learning process (satisfaction) will be omitted and the readiness for similar instruction will soon diminish, and probably disappear.

After one has been instructed, *repetition* (drill) is necessary in order to impress the learning indelibly on the mind. When the principle of simple multiplication has been repeated through working out a few multiplication problems without assistance other than the correction of errors, drill has begun. It tends to fix the principle permanently in the learner's mind. Repetition in connection with learning various principles of mathematics and science makes it possible for the learner to claim those principles as his own rather than grasp them today and see them vanish tomorrow.

MINIMUM OF REGIMENTATION

Regimentation is the act or process of organizing into groups. Without organization most of man's large-scale developments would have been impossible. Proper organizing is essential even though the process or some of its effects may be distasteful. Without organizing pupils into groups, mass education would not have evolved. In a nation of 160,000,000 people, or even in a community of 100,000, education in basic areas, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, and the social studies, must largely be a matter of organizing individuals into groups, and reaching them as members of a group. Even if it might be desirable to do so, no country could afford to give so much as half of its children a dozen years of individualized instruction. It is necessary to rely on modern methods of group instruction and educational organization. They make possible the instructing of many at one time by one teacher, and a number of groups simultaneously in the same building and under the direction of one school administrator. This system reduces *per capita* cost of both public and private education.

To some extent the mechanics of operating a school must be standardized, such as maintaining attendance and other statistical records in high school, so that comparative studies can be made to measure the results in those high schools which should be comparable. In both high schools and colleges some standardization is necessary for the sake of accreditation. Through organization at the city and state levels, somewhat comparable standards of instruction and somewhat comparable requirements for course completion and graduation can be maintained in public high schools. Through accrediting organizations, such as the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, academic standards have been raised in many public high schools and private preparatory schools and in a large number of colleges.

As a result of standardization there is some comparability between schools of the same type. To a rather large extent a high-school diploma from one high school means approximately as much as from another, and from one college approximately as much as from another college. This usually enables

the pupil to transfer from one high school to another without loss of credit, to enter college without taking extra work, and to receive full recognition when transferring from one institution of higher learning to another. Such results of standardization in education assist in providing a proper setting for learning, as they indicate quality instruction and show the student that he can have faith in school since work done there will be recognized by other schools and since its diploma will rank with those issued by schools of similar type.

Even though regimentation is necessary in education, it can go much too far. An excess of uniformity in a school and too much standardization of schools within a system destroys a proper setting for learning. It can virtually turn teachers into robots and students into a state of unwholesome submissiveness. Many high schools in America suffer from regimentation.

Frequently there is too much emphasis on petty rules of discipline; as, for example, in the cafeteria of one junior high school in a large city a student is not permitted to stand for even a few seconds after being served and may not leave his or her table to visit at another table except by being seated immediately. The assistant principal orders the students about in an officious manner, curtails talking more than is necessary to curtail it, and makes a pleasant atmosphere almost impossible during the noon meal. Order is preserved for the sake of order, as a means of control, regardless of destruction of spirit. In some other schools one still finds examples of rigid adherence to keeping in line during passage from one classroom to another between periods.

Course offerings are very similar in a high school in an urban manufacturing or commercial center, and in a rural region. This similarity in course offerings gives indication of their being superimposed in the name of uniformity, yet greater variation than exists could be devised to meet local need with no harm to the student, to the community, or to any part of the school system of the state.

The pattern of extracurricular (also called extraclass) activities in high school is rather standard—athletics, dramatics, glee club—whereas they could be built around interests and abilities of individual teachers, as is done in some high schools. Using as a general policy the idea of building the extracurricular activities around the teacher or subject would provide a tremendous and wholesome variety. Many extracurricular activities would then command much more interest than some of those which are now carried on. Less perfunctoriness and more enthusiasm on the part of the teachers conducting the respective activities would be noticeable. *Extraclass Activities for All Pupils* is the title of Bulletin 1950, No. 4, prepared by the U. S. Office of Education. That bulletin discusses the responsibility of the secondary school for organizing, conducting, and evaluating extracurricular activities, and comments on a number of trends concerning this phase of the school program.

Colleges in this country probably follow too closely a rather standard pattern of higher education, and one in which a proper setting for advanced learning does not always flourish.

The high-school program at Winnetka, Illinois, a suburb of Chicago, is refreshing. It is different, and is charged with life, purpose, and variety. Informality of an orderly kind is encouraged. Students are urged to think through, discuss, and work out problems in their own way. The setting at the University of Chicago is different from that found on most college campuses in the United States. At the University of Chicago some pupils may move as rapidly as their ability permits. They need not remain four years to receive their bachelor's degree. The emphasis is on intellectual development, not on attendance at a certain number of lectures. Johns Hopkins University also adopted this approach, having begun in September, 1951. St. John's College, Annapolis, Maryland, emphasizes the classics as a means of developing powers of thought and ability to adjust to our present world. These unusual approaches to education are not perfect. They do show, however, that in an age of standardization it is possible to develop successfully something that is different.

In order to keep regimentation to a minimum, school administrators must be on the lookout eternally for evils of standardization which creep up on them and then remain through carelessness or through a desire to shortcut, doing those constructive things which are possible within a program of large scale education. Some policies and procedures such as promoting the same kind of extracurricular (extraclass) activities year after year or maintaining rigid discipline in the school cafeteria can become an easy crutch on which to fall back and harder to get along without. Policies and procedures have a way of accumulating and stratifying and surviving beyond their period of usefulness. In each school they should be examined annually to see which can be enlivened or discarded in order to decrease the evil effects of standardization without impairing efficiency of administration. This practice of rethinking and housecleaning will tend to reduce regimentation to a minimum and to provide a proper setting for learning.

WHAT ABOUT DISCIPLINE?

Discipline connotes control and training. It varies from harsh measures imposed on another to self-improvement activities. In thinking of discipline in relation to a proper setting for learning, the problem revolves around teacher-learner relationships in the classroom.

There must be a reasonable amount of order and quietness in the classroom so that effective learning can take place, but the order and quietness should not be maintained in a rigid manner. A paralyzing silence and orderliness precludes an atmosphere for vital learning. Informality in the classroom has value if that informality is of an organized sort. Conditions are not good which

permit the laggard to do as he pleases in school and which fail to develop a sense of personal responsibility to be considerate of others in the class.

A large group of pupils or students in a classroom, even at the senior high-school level, will break silence if they are given freedom to work actively on the assignment at hand. A classroom in an elementary or high school should be filled with life and activity, but children and youth should be under control. This control means guidance, not silence and suppression. Silence and suppression create a dull, heavy, oppressive atmosphere rather than one that is throbbing with life and purpose.

An important function of the teacher is to teach pupils to control themselves. A type of classroom discipline which develops self-control is a constructive type. The optimum in classroom discipline is reached when discipline is based on mutual understanding between pupils or pupils and teacher as to what is necessary on the part of both in order to have a relationship which permits a full flow of ideas and accomplishment combined with consideration for other individuals. Classroom discipline based on such understanding, and guided by a skillful teacher, produces a setting in which learning flourishes. No restraint should be used in the classroom for the sake of demonstrating authority. Restraint should be used only when it has value to the members of the class. The emphasis should be on self-control. There are two reasons why teachers should emphasize self-control:

1. *Immediate reason*—to avoid interference with members of a group doing school work, by other members of the group, and to teach them not to be offensive to each other and to the teacher

2. *Long range reason*—to develop life-long attitudes and habits of consideration for others.

The good teacher uses constructive discipline rather than punitive discipline or paternalism. Neither punitive discipline nor paternalism builds an atmosphere for vital learning. Punitive discipline is much less common in American schools today than formerly. It was in vogue a half century ago in spite of the good sense of many contemporary educators. Then it was commonly believed that, in elementary and secondary schools, pupils should remain almost motionless and silent unless asked by the teacher to rise and "recite" the lesson. Talking to another about school work, even though not disturbing the class, or walking to the front of the room to look at a map without asking permission at a time when looking at the map would cause no interference was not to be tolerated. On the college level, too, punitive discipline was noticeable in the classroom a half century ago, and was much in evidence 100 years ago.

Punitive discipline engenders a dislike for the teacher and usually for all that he or she attempts to teach. If teachers maintain control by repressive restraint rather than by leadership and pupils behave badly when on their way home from school, when at home, and at other times when away from the classroom, the teacher's influence has been of little value. The use of punitive discipline in the classroom denies the group a proper setting for learning.

There is a difference between punitive discipline and paternalism, although at times they may be combined. Paternalism, used by some teachers of any generation, discourages initiative on the part of the learner. The paternalistic teacher insists on making the decisions and in ordering the class members about as though they were dependent children. Often paternalism is tempting as it is easier for some teachers to be paternalistic than to encourage initiative and because pupils frequently prefer a paternalistic approach to one that requires them to work on their own initiative. Paternalism does not assist in building an atmosphere for vital learning.

Instead of being repressive or paternalistic, a good teacher manages his or her classroom in a constructive way of a sort which helps greatly in developing attitudes and habits of self-control, politeness, tact, and responsibility. The constructive approach to classroom discipline as used by the competent teacher produces confidence and a simple dignity on the part of both teacher and learner.

The wise teacher makes use of public opinion. By explaining appropriately the reason for asking that certain things be done and others avoided, the teacher *leads* most pupils in the group to approve the classroom requirements. The force of the public opinion of the group will then turn itself upon those who refuse to comply. An approach of this kind is far superior to either punitive discipline or paternalism. In a stern tone of voice a teacher may ask a pupil to leave the room because of making a noise. Such action on the teacher's part is likely to accomplish nothing except raising the pupil's resistance quotient. At times, reprimand and withdrawal of privileges are necessary in the classroom. When this is the case, group approval for the teacher's action makes the action effective.

The public opinion or group approval approach, in contrast to reprimanding savagely an individual before an entire class, works well from kindergarten to the college level. Recently at an eastern university an instructor in zoology had cautioned his class to be careful in using specially prepared slides which were furnished to each member of the class for microscopic examination. After the caution, and early in the semester, one student deliberately crushed one of the slides by pushing the end of a microscope through it. The instructor could have virtually excoriated the student before the class but in doing so would probably have made a martyr of him. It is likely that nothing constructive would have been accomplished by public excoriation. The instructor wisely sought group disapproval of the student's action. He addressed the class stating that the slides had cost the university approximately \$5 each and that an unalterable budget had determined the total number of slides which would be available to the class for the remainder of the semester and that Mr. _____ unfortunately had deliberately broken one a few minutes before. The instructor then expressed to the class the hope that all members would be particularly careful in handling the slides so that full value could be derived from the course by each pupil. Saying no more about the matter he went on with

scheduled activities of the class. The pupil in error did not become a martyr. No more slides were broken during the remainder of the semester. The instructor had skillfully avoided a situation which could have weakened an atmosphere for vital learning.

Discipline is necessary in the classroom so as to provide a proper setting for learning. Through constructive classroom discipline based on mutual understanding, a good teacher can exercise a personal influence on pupils which speeds learning at once and which molds attitudes even beyond the school years. A good teacher leads rather than drives. This is in sharp contrast to punitive discipline and to a paternalistic approach in the classroom.

ESTABLISH A BOND OF CONFIDENCE

A bond is a uniting tie, a binding force or influence. Confidence is an attitude of faith. When a bond of confidence exists between two persons, they trust each other, believe in each other. It is desirable that such a relationship should exist between teacher and pupil. It will facilitate learning. Where there is a lack of confidence there is uncertainty, and in school this means retardation of learning.

A bond of trust between teacher and pupils, based on the teacher's genuine interest in the pupils, is perhaps the most important factor in learning, assuming that the teacher knows the subject being presented. The good teacher treats pupils as though respecting and liking them. To do otherwise jeopardizes learning seriously. Children and youth work hardest for those teachers who believe in them and like them. From such teachers they learn more than from other teachers, and remember them with satisfaction. This is true of high-school and college pupils as well as of children in the elementary school.

In the classroom there should be a two-way relationship of confidence between teacher and pupils. A bond of confidence between them is a harmonious relation, a rapport, which promotes learning. It develops a *readiness* for instruction which is to be undertaken. A good way for a teacher to win the confidence of pupils is to have confidence in them and to let them know of this confidence. Discreet friendliness rather than coldness on the part of the teacher assists in building a bond of confidence between pupils and the teacher.

A teacher who is consistent has a quality which inspires confidence. It is difficult to have confidence in a person who is erratic and unstable and who changes policy on the spur of the moment or flies into a rage. A good teacher has no serious frustrations that may cause an unexpected outburst at almost any time.

Teachers who avoid classroom practices which irritate pupils find little difficulty in establishing a firm bond of confidence. Among the irritating practices are the following:

1. *Authoritarianism*—A classroom atmosphere of ordering and forbidding does not establish a bond of confidence between teacher and pupils. A good teacher is not an authoritarian.

2. *Partiality*—An apple for the teacher? Impartiality is a better policy. It means fairness to all, no "teacher's pets," no favorites. It also means that pupils will have confidence in the teacher's sense of fairness. A good teacher is just as honest in dealing with pupils as in dealing with others and in handling personal affairs away from school.

3. *Talking down to pupils*—A superior attitude is obnoxious. A teacher with an attitude toward pupils of "you, too, may understand this subject some day if you study hard" naturally is resented.

4. *Breaking promises*—The good teacher avoids making promises which he (or she) cannot keep and fulfills those which he makes. Being in the position of inability to keep a promise which he has made or backing down on one that he has given destroys the confidence of pupils in a teacher.

Pupils do not like these practices. Who does? Teachers who engage in these irritating practices destroy the confidence which their pupils have in them. Pupils do not like such teachers. It is so human to lack confidence in those whom we do not like, regardless of their ability and integrity.

Teachers who make tactful efforts to build the self-confidence of pupils find that the bread which they cast on the water comes back to them in the form of a bond of confidence between themselves and those whom they help. In class the teacher can build the pupils' self-confidence through use of commendation when deserved. In private, when the opportunity presents itself, the teacher can point out to a pupil his weaknesses, show him how they can be overcome, and the extent to which overcoming the weaknesses will benefit him. It is important, of course, that good judgment be used in counseling and that attention is called to one weakness at a time rather than to too many during an interview so as to build self-confidence and strengthen the pupil rather than to discourage him.

A two-way relationship of confidence, a bond of faith, between teacher and pupils is an important element in a proper setting for learning. This bond causes teacher and pupil to move forward together in the search for truth.

ENTHUSIASM IS CONTAGIOUS

Enthusiasm is an ardent zeal or interest. An enthusiastic person has keen and ardent interests. These can be exercised without sacrifice of judgment. When enthusiasm is combined with good judgment, it is one of the most priceless of qualities, even though many regard it as something juvenile. They, in general, do not possess it!

The teacher should be enthusiastic but not an extremist—not a fanatic or a zealot. If a teacher is enthusiastic about living, about understanding current affairs, about promoting education, about schools, and about adding to his or her store of knowledge, then the pupils with whom he or she comes in contact daily, too, are likely to be at least somewhat enthusiastic about adding to their store of knowledge. Enthusiasm is contagious.

A teacher can arouse enthusiasm in pupils about the subject matter being taught by believing in the subject matter and being enthused about it himself or herself. Teachers who have an enthusiasm for pupils and for teaching

subject matter to them transmit to their pupils a perceptible enthusiasm not only for the teaching and the subject matter, but also for the teacher. "Billy Phelps of Yale" (Professor William Lyon Phelps, 1865-1943) who aroused engineering pupils to a point of ecstasy over an elective course in English literature is a well-known example of this fact.

No matter how well a laboratory is planned, constructed, and equipped, unless the teacher in it is enthusiastic about the subject matter at hand, the instruction will be deficient. The good teacher is as enthusiastic in teaching to the one-hundredth group as to the first the meaning of the symbol H_2O and how a combination of two parts of hydrogen and one of oxygen form water. Unless such enthusiasm is present in a laboratory or classroom, an atmosphere for vital learning will not exist there, except by cropping up occasionally in spite of the teacher.

Even though the teacher has been teaching the same subject for twenty years, he should still be enthused about it when teaching it to those who are traveling this way for the first time. Unless the teacher's enthusiasm persists in spite of annually repeating the same subject matter, an atmosphere for vital learning is likely to be lacking, in spite of excellent architectural features, up-to-date laboratory and classroom equipment, and special mechanical aids such as motion picture projectors. Furthermore, a teacher need not necessarily repeat instruction in the same old way. He, too, can grow.

If the subject is worth teaching, it is worthy of teacher and pupil enthusiasm. The teacher's enthusiasm for the subject matter being taught, in spite of the fact that in teaching it he or she is retracing steps over familiar ground, definitely tends to arouse the enthusiasm of the pupil. The teacher's enthusiasm for the subject once again assists in providing *readiness*, the first step of learning, for the pupil to whom the subject is a new pasture. As a result of the teacher's enthusiasm, the subject can become a pasture of lush clover rather than one of briars amongst dried grass. The teacher's enthusiasm for something old to him and new to the learner tends to carry the pupil successfully through the second step of learning, *satisfaction*. It also tends to make the third step, *repetition*, interesting. The teacher's enthusiasm is contagious and assists in creating a proper setting for learning.

PROVIDES CHOICES

From time to time during the school years, the youth should be given choices, should be put in an atmosphere of exploration and choosing. Youth will be making choices for the remainder of their lives. Outside of school they will be required to make choices but will not be able to do only what they want to do. School, then, in offering some compulsion and at the same time offering some opportunity to make choices, provides an atmosphere akin to all of life.

Providing choices appropriately will help build a proper setting for learning by showing the pupils that they have a part in things other than just doing

what they are told. Furthermore, giving pupils an opportunity to make choices helps build their self-confidence.

One should not be forced into every bit of instruction received. Through an atmosphere which is at least partly one of exploration and choices, the learner should be permitted to reach for those things which delight him. This will assist both the teacher and the learner to understand the learner's interests and abilities. In this way the school can assist in achieving the object which Charles W. Eliot, of "Five-Foot Bookshelf" fame, had in mind when writing the following words which appear on page 324 of a book edited by M. V. O'Shea and published in 1924 under the title of *The Child: His Nature and His Needs*:

It is for the interest of society to make the most of every useful gift or faculty which any member may fortunately possess; and it is one of the main advantages of fluent and mobile democratic society that it is more likely than any other society to secure the fruition of individual capacities. To make the most of any individual's peculiar power, it is important to discover it early, and then train it continuously and assiduously. It is wonderful what apparently small personal gifts may become the means of conspicuous service or achievement, if only they get discovered, trained, and applied.

Depriving individuals of the right to make choices is tantamount to slavery. Learning thrives and personality develops in a democratic atmosphere, not in an atmosphere of repression or constant direction.

The school administrator makes curriculum choices available to pupils. He can also make other choices available without destroying a proper setting for learning. To a large extent the matter of providing choices as a means of establishing a proper setting for learning rests with the teacher. There are numerous ways in which teachers can build an invigorating atmosphere, a wholesome setting for learning, through providing choices. A teacher can use initiative in this matter and ought to watch for opportunities to offer choices which will not endanger proper control of the class.

At the beginning of a semester a teacher can start to offer choices by letting the pupils know that each may choose his own seat in the classroom but that he must then stick by his choice—providing such a choice costs the teacher little, if anything, in the way of inconvenience. The daily recording of attendance can be adjusted readily to an alphabetical or non-alphabetical plan.

Pupils should be informed at the beginning of a semester as to various choices which will be available to them, including types of equipment on hand for pupil use. It should not be taken for granted that all members of the class are familiar with these facts.

The teacher who urges pupils to make a tentative choice of collateral reading assignments does more to provide a proper setting for learning than the one who firmly fixes those assignments for the class. A teacher of English or history may require that each pupil read a book each semester in addition to the text. If an approved list from which to select books is furnished, it is well

for the teacher to let pupils know that *any* book which any member of the class would like to read in lieu of those on the list will be approved as a substitute if it has collateral reading value comparable to the books listed.

From time to time in making assignments a teacher can provide a pupil with two problems and ask him to choose one and solve it. Asking the pupil to select a tentative topic for a term paper does something in the way of providing a proper setting for learning which is not accomplished by the best of topic selection on the part of the teacher.

If certain matters which are part of the semester's work do not need to be scheduled during a specific week, the teacher might well occasionally ask the class members whether they would rather attend to a matter next week or in two weeks. As to a test covering the work of several weeks, it might be appropriate to ask the pupils if they prefer to take it on Friday of this week or on Monday of next week. When choices are offered, and when accepted, they should be regarded as contracts. When pupils are free to state their preference or make a *yes* or *no* decision, they should *know* that they are free to do so. Both the teacher and the pupils should abide by the choice made when one is offered by the teacher. When the choice is offered to the entire class, the preference of the majority of the class members should prevail.

Where education is handled on other than an almost completely mass production basis, the teacher can offer the pupil the choice of taking a final test on a semester's work on the subject *or* sitting down in a quiet place for a fifteen-minute discussion of the subject. Either will indicate to the competent teacher the approximate degree of proficiency of the pupil in the subject. It is recognized, however, that there are many difficulties in grading a pupil mainly on the basis of an interview. The fluent, superficial talker might deceive the teacher during the quarter-of-an-hour discussion and the shy pupil with a really penetrating mind might not receive as high an evaluation as he deserved. Yet, a competent teacher is aware of these pitfalls.

Well-developed vocational education and training programs in high school provide much opportunity to offer choices. In a large shop or in a series of adjoining shops, a boy is offered the opportunity to feel his way and make a choice of occupational training. He can work on automobile motors; install residence type electric light fixtures, switches, and fuse boxes; cut and thread pipe and install faucets and valves; lay a sill, erect studs, and fasten a plate, and the like to determine in his own mind whether he would rather be an automobile mechanic, an electrician, a plumber, or a carpenter, if desiring to become a skilled tradesman.

In offering to the youth the opportunity to make choices, he should be taught to guard against postponing too long the making of a choice even though it requires deliberation. Attention can be called to the fact that in many instances a usable decision, even if not the ideal one, should be accepted as the best that can then be expected. The individual who always has difficulty in making

up his or her mind as to which questions to select on an examination where choices are provided and who hesitates for weeks in selecting a topic for a term paper wastes precious time.

Choices of subjects and choices of assignments within them, and choices of extracurricular activities all help a teacher and a pupil to discover special abilities of the pupil. The availability of choice in the classroom, laboratory, or shop helps the pupil enjoy school. This enjoyment in turn promotes a receptivity (readiness) for learning.

DEVELOP INTELLECTUAL CURIOSITY

One who has intellectual curiosity exhibits a marked interest concerning acquisition of useful knowledge. Such a person possesses an eagerness to learn, to acquire facts and points of view worthy of consideration in a classroom and worthy of being in print on the shelves of a school library. By developing intellectual curiosity in pupils, a teacher virtually keeps them in a state of *readiness* to learn. Developing intellectual curiosity is, therefore, a significant step in providing a proper setting for learning.

It is the duty of the school to develop in the pupil an inquiring mind, one which gathers useful and interesting facts and opinions and attempts to solve problems. In order for schools to develop in the pupil an inquiring mind, the teachers themselves must have inquiring minds and must build an *atmosphere* of intellectual curiosity. It is the job of each teacher to tell age-old truths with a clarity and freshness which seizes the attention of the learner and arouses his intellectual curiosity.

The asking of questions which cause the pupil to look for facts and to think is a powerful aid in developing intellectual curiosity. This type of questioning can be done in elementary school and through graduate school. Generally it is more adapted to college and graduate school than to secondary school and elementary school, owing to greater maturity, and somewhat to greater selectivity, of the advanced pupils. Nevertheless, the use of challenging questions ought not be neglected at the elementary and secondary levels. In fact, the child, youth, or mature adult who is not being challenged in some way is not being educated.

A school that is charged with an atmosphere of searching for truth, especially for the answers to important problems of life, is one which makes some very interesting and valuable contributions. It develops a desire in pupils to be objective and to look constantly for that which will result in progress. This goal of consistent, objective searching in behalf of man's betterment is, of course, difficult to reach. In the following words James Harvey Robinson, on page 61 of his book entitled *The Humanizing of Knowledge*, 1923, refers to it as being just as worthy as it is difficult:

Of all human ambitions an open mind, eagerly expectant of new discoveries and ready to remould convictions in the light of added knowledge and dispelled ignorances and misapprehensions, is the noblest, the rarest, and the most difficult to achieve.

On the college level the developing of intellectual curiosity is not difficult in those schools where pupils are selected with great care and guided to courses which they desire and can handle well. The pupil in a large university who is there because he wants to become a college professor of entomology will not let a bug, or a book about bugs, out of his hand until he has examined it. The engineering pupil who hopes to build many bridges will not pass one that is unfamiliar to him without inspecting it, if in his power to stop and scrutinize. Different is the situation of the junior high-school pupil on a warm Wednesday morning in early April! Books and bugs may be a nuisance and teachers the cause of it all.

Developing intellectual curiosity sometimes is quite a problem. When it is, if the teacher succeeds in developing the curiosity, learning will proceed. Teachers must use initiative in facing this problem as in facing other problems. It is impossible to say how a teacher should in every instance go about developing in class members a thirst for knowledge. Conditions affecting this problem vary in different types of schools and in different locations, in different seasons of the year, and to some extent from year to year due to extreme national emergency or a period of economic depression or an era of peace and prosperity. However, the following general comments can furnish a start for thinking about the problem.

A teacher's love for the subject being taught and for useful knowledge in general sets a pattern of intellectual curiosity for members of a class. Tying subject matter to be digested with facts or ideas already of interest to pupils or well known to them is a means of developing intellectual curiosity. Also, by expressing some of his own curiosities and unanswered queries about his subject, the teacher can often arouse pupils' interest, as such action on the teacher's part indicates that knowledge is not all static, catalogued, and complete. Such attitude also shows that the teacher himself is still a learner.

A bare classroom is of no help in developing intellectual curiosity. One which contains maps, models, special exhibits, charts, books, and equipment, in orderly and attractive arrangement, and *relating to the subject matter currently under consideration* can be of assistance to the teacher in arousing interest in the subject. An untidy and poorly equipped laboratory or an unsightly and noisy library are likely to do little to develop intellectual curiosity.

Intellectual curiosity can be aroused by urging pupils to test for themselves rather than accept word for word what they are taught or what they read in books. In teaching biology in high school and dealing with osmosis, the teacher can create interest by pointing out that this process is required in the normal operation of many of the body functions, such as in absorption of nutrients by the intestine, and that without osmosis we could not live. After explaining the

process and indicating why and how it builds up a pressure, the teacher might suggest, but in no tone of command, that anyone in the class can experiment at home to see how osmosis works by doing the following: (1) Select a glass tube which is open at both ends and tie a membrane tightly over one end, fill the tube half full with water and sugar in a proportion of ten parts water to one of sugar, and suspend the tube in a soup bowl or other container filled with water. (2) Look at the glass tube occasionally during the next few hours to see if osmosis takes place, and in the way described in the textbook.

In a casual manner the teacher can mention what kind of membrane to use for the experiment and where to obtain it, and then give attention to other matters, so as not to force the experiment on the class. If a boy or girl comes to class enthusiastically a few days later saying "it worked" and tells about making the experiment, the teacher will do well to announce this fact to the class, or have the pupil describe it before the group. Such approach will generate other experiments during the semester and intellectual curiosity will be on the move.

An atmosphere of intellectual curiosity is one in which a person learns how to study, and how to recognize, use, and appreciate good books. It is not as important to store the heads of pupils full of facts as to teach pupils how to use reference materials and find information when it is needed. Teaching pupils how to find facts in *Encyclopedia Americana*, *Encyclopedia Britannica*, the *World Book*, and in other standard reference works, and how to use a library is basic. This instruction provides a foundation upon which intellectual curiosity can grow. The ability to evaluate the new can be developed through furnishing such instruction.

As to many types of published factual information, it is just as important for one to know where to find it as to have it tucked away in his mind. The educated person of 30, 40, 50, or 60 years of age has the ability to find the answer to a question based on published information when he cannot draw the answer immediately from his own accumulation of knowledge. This ability is an outgrowth of his having had intellectual curiosity over a period of years.

EMPHASIZE CONSTRUCTIVE LIVING

Life is worth living, and worth living constructively. It is impossible to envision all of the major accomplishments which will stem from constructive effort in the United States during the next ten years. Hundreds of thousands of houses need to be erected. School buildings, highways, and bridges need to be built. Rivers should be dredged and freed from pollution. Household appliances and office machines need to be improved. This enumeration could be lengthened greatly. Even so, most boys and girls in America today enjoy things which Louis XIV, King of France from 1643 to 1715, never saw. Among these things are the automobile, the motion picture, and the fountain pen. Nevertheless, progress should continue and should relate to both mechanical

and social advances. This two-fold progress will be assured if youth is convinced that constructive living, *for the good of the community*, produces within the individual a clear conscience and a good feeling toward the world.

A constructive view of life ought to result from the various influences which supplement or change one's education. A constructive view of life includes moral concepts and social obligation. It places a premium on purpose in life and regards devious practices with disdain.

Emphasizing constructive living is partly a function of home and church. Shaping a constructive view of life is accomplished partly through home training and church influence. These, of course, have a widely varying effect on different individuals.

The general atmosphere of the school, too, should emphasize constructive living. Why spend time and money on education unless learning is pointed toward constructive objectives? What is more pathetic than a person who flounders or drifts through life, or more despicable than one whose purpose is harmful to the community? The school's emphasis on constructive living will forestall such idleness and also much harmful activity during youth and the remainder of life.

Constructive living can be emphasized by a teacher, especially while teaching a class and while counseling a student. Most class members have an urge to do something, even though they may not know what. In capitalizing on this creative urge, the good teacher draws on his best resources to find a way of giving the pupil a feeling of purpose, worth whileness, in life and to make the pupil realize that *constructive* living is important, that activity can and should be useful rather than destructive, or spiritlessly routine.

The teacher's philosophy of life and behavior are pre-eminent factors in building a school atmosphere which emphasizes constructive living. Those teachers who virtually radiate a zest for living and a spirit which convinces others that there are many important things to be done and that the doing of them will be rewarding, set a tempo of constructive living which influences pupils. By living constructively, a teacher emphasizes the value of devoting life to worth-while purposes. Personal example is the best way to emphasize constructive living.

In addition to personal example, a good teacher uses direct and indirect instruction to emphasize constructive living. This instructing is done discreetly, and at times by admonition, but not by monotonous repetition. When tied in with the subject matter at hand or with the interests of those being taught, it can make a lasting impression.

The instructing is done in the classroom in the midst of regular activities, and also through counseling with one pupil at a time, in private. A counseling opportunity presents itself when a pupil seeks out the teacher for an answer. If there is an ideal interview situation the teacher can make use of it by commending the pupil for expressing a lofty thought, or by attempting to

lift the pupil who expresses a desire to short-cut life. It is in the interview situation particularly that building on the pupil's interests can be helpful in "selling" the idea of constructive living.

Both direct and indirect instructing as a means of emphasizing constructive living require skill. At times they require much more skill than is necessary to teach multiplication, principles of science, or rules of grammar. Emphasizing constructive living is a much more difficult task for some teachers than for others due to differences in personality, amount of teaching experience, and basic philosophy of life.

This direct and indirect type of teaching concerning constructive living is more difficult in some classes than in others. It is comparatively easy in classes in history, civics, government, sociology, ethics, religion, or literature, regardless of age group being taught, but may be difficult in an algebra class. With ingenuity a teacher of any subject can emphasize constructive living through remarks in the classroom, and through selection of reading assignments for the class. The following are illustrations of direct and indirect instructing as a means of emphasizing constructive living.

1. *The teacher can teach class members to have faith in their ability to do constructive things.* Commendation given by the teacher for work well done builds the pupil's self-confidence. Building this characteristic is a continuous function of the school. By showing class members how much more they can do now than they were able to do five years ago, and what some of the graduates of their school are now accomplishing, the teacher can build further, and bolster, the confidence of pupils in their own ability to do worth-while things.

2. *The teacher can give pupils some idea as to their present citizenship responsibilities, and as to the demands of adult life beyond the school years.* It can be pointed out that getting along well with others is a large part of one's responsibility in life and that usually those who want genuinely to live constructively have little difficulty in getting along with others, and are usually respected.

Attention can be called to the fact that pupils who put much effort into school work and into developing thorough habits of study and habits of fair play at all times and who have respect for property and are thrifty in the use of supplies are living constructively, and that they can thereby secure much satisfaction. Furthermore, attention can be called to the fact that adults, by obeying the law, voting, being well informed as to public affairs, paying taxes, serving the community in various ways, such as by accepting jury duty when called, being loyal to anyone worthy of loyalty, and earning a living by doing useful work, are living constructively.

3. *The teacher can point out the desirability of possessing a sense of worth and significance in the world.* Pupils can be shown how desperately our civilization requires creative people who think in terms of community need

rather than in terms of selfish desire. The pupil should be shown that in order to possess a sense of worth and significance he must choose wisely, but not immediately, a field of work which will have value to the world and at the same time produce satisfaction for himself. It should be made clear that, unless one creates for himself a set of socially constructive values, his life will very likely be sterile and that without them he may soon become bored even though he may have at his command a relatively large number of the goods and services which money can buy. In this and other ways the teacher can attempt to show the pupil that in selecting socially constructive values one helps himself to a good life.

4. *The teacher can call attention to outstanding contributions made by characters of history (scientists, inventors, statesmen, and the like) or by living persons.* Men and women can be cited who, through constructive effort, made possible the introduction of the pasteurization process, penicillin, electric lights, and other developments which affect our daily life. Occasional reference to the lives of great characters in the past or to living persons who have made useful contributions is desirable. This permits a wide latitude. The teacher can cite Aristotle or refer discreetly to pupils of the school in which he is teaching who are examples of constructive attitude and who are highly respected in general by their associates, as, for instance, the president of the student council.

MAKE THE MOST OF PRINTED MATERIALS

The invention of printing and the making of a few books available was a great stimulus to education. Mass printing and ability to give each person in school his own book was another great step forward.

John Amos Comenius (1592-1670), in preparing his *Orbis Sensualium Pictus* (World in Pictures), the first picture book which was adapted successfully to the teaching of children, foresaw the part which the printed page can have in setting an atmosphere which encourages learning. His *Orbis* was a pictorial encyclopedia giving lists of words. Each word included was defined by Comenius and accompanied by an illustration.

Comenius, a reformer who attracted international attention in his day by his writings on education, wanted to make knowledge concrete and definite. He believed that education should not be something austere and remote, but sympathetic and helpful to the child and bent to the child's nature. Picture books relating to the subject being taught should be concrete and interesting. Comenius believed in his reforms so strongly that, like John Dewey in Chicago early in the present century, he established a school of his own and made education an interesting experience for those who attended.

In this rapidly advancing age, textbooks should be current. Placing in the hands of pupils textbooks which were printed 20 years ago makes for non-current learning and tends to leave the impression that the subject is not very important—fails to develop an atmosphere for vital learning. A textbook

should not only be current; it should be accurate. This means that the textbook should not be biased, nor prepared in haste, nor written by someone other than an expert in the field represented by it. A textbook should be balanced rather than treating one part of the subject at great length and another of similar importance, briefly. It should be written interestingly and printed in readable and attractive type face and page format. The vocabulary should be geared to the level of the group using the book. Illustrations which have "spark," meaning, and attractiveness and which relate closely to the contents of the text, as did those by Comenius, are of assistance to the student.

Workbooks, too, can be made interesting through use of special format and careful choice of illustrations, as well as by the way in which the problems are presented. Many suitable workbooks dealing respectively with a number of subject matter fields are available from book publishers. These workbooks contain detailed instructions for their use. Pamphlets and leaflets that are pertinent to the current instruction of a group have a place in the classroom. They can be used to advantage by the teacher as required or as optional reading in connection with a special emphasis.

Maps, posters, charts, and graphs of wall-size selected from those available from publishing concerns and from agencies of cities, states, and the Federal government are useful in presenting most subjects. The selection of these visual materials in contrasting colors provides an additional means of emphasis. A chart which shows blood flow from and to the human heart is made concrete by the use of arrows and two contrasting colors, one for blood entering and the other for blood leaving the heart.

A map that is to be hung on the wall should be large enough so that most parts of it will be visible clearly to members of the class while they are seated. The same principle should apply in selecting and placing posters, charts, and graphs. It is desirable that the lettering, numbers, and sketches be distinguishable to the eye from any location in the room.

Printed pictures with text description such as special packets available in postcard-size from the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City are helpful in teaching and represent one more form of printed material adapted to classroom use. They can be distributed to pupils for collateral study.

By means of the opaque projector, printed materials in black and white or in full color gathered over a period of years and organized into sets, can be projected before a class on the day when they illustrate specifically the subject matter under discussion. Pictures or clippings from newspapers prepared for pupil use, such as *The American Observer*, can also be employed in this way.

In the absence of a set of pictures or clippings mounted and filed, the teacher can place an opened magazine, such as *The National Geographic*, or an opened book under the projector and reflect on the screen a picture without mutilating the magazine or book. Mechanical difficulty in this use of printed materials is being overcome fairly well.

Most of the printed materials mentioned above can also be used in preparing attractive, interesting, and highly informative displays on classroom and corridor bulletin boards. Through the use of printed pictures and other visual aids, in combination with effective teaching, both the ear-minded and the eye-minded pupil can be reached, and both can be taught to be keen observers.

MAGIC IN BLACKBOARDS

The introduction of the blackboard was a significant development in education. Now we take the blackboard for granted and seldom put it to best use. In almost any school the blackboard, or the greenboard, is at the teacher's disposal. When used properly it can be of great value as an instructing aid.

Any use which is made of the blackboard should be related directly to the subject matter at hand, as is the case with all visual aids to education. Any sketches or outlines put on the board should be accurate and ought to have a definite purpose. Whether drawn and written by the teacher before meeting the class or while instructing, they should exhibit sufficient care of execution so that they can be seen and understood by the class members. A blackboard filled with abbreviated words illegibly written and sketches which bear no resemblance to boats, fish, houses, or anything else is likely to be more confusing than helpful. The use of colored crayon can be as effective on the blackboard in clarifying points of instruction as is the selection and use of wall-size charts in contrasting colors. Jotting on the blackboard pertinent principles and different names or terms brought out during a classroom discussion, and reviewing them with the class, helps to make those principles, names, or terms clear and helps to fasten them definitely in the pupil's mind.

Frequent change of pace, or scenery, during forty-five minutes or an hour of instructing is desirable. Well-planned change assists in arousing and maintaining the interest of the class. Whatever assists in arousing and maintaining interest in scheduled instruction helps to provide a proper setting for learning. The use of different techniques in creating interest in the subject matter under consideration, the use of a variety of approaches in presenting facts and points of view, and the use of different ways of repeating, for the sake of drill, avoids monotonous routine.

The blackboard provides opportunity for change of pace through its use frequently by the teacher and also by pupils. To have quite a number of the members of a class go to the blackboard at the same time to work out arithmetic problems definitely provides a change of pace. By having members of the class get up before the group, one at a time, and work out a mathematics problem on the blackboard, or draw a sketch of an electric circuit, and the like, and explain to the class that which they have put on the board, a helpful change of pace can be achieved. In addition, this type of use of the blackboard is one more way to develop self-confidence and leadership in pupils. The

pupil's appearance before the group teaches him how to think on his feet and proves to him that he can express his ideas before an organized group.

Each of the above types of uses of the blackboard are appropriate for the upper elementary grades and in high-school and colleges classes. However, there is less need for pupil use of the blackboard in college than in high school and elementary school. In college lecture courses having an enrollment of 75 or 100 or more, the matter of pupil use of the blackboard, of course, is remote or non-existent, unless the pupils of a course meet periodically in small sections with an instructor who conducts a review and drill session, as is common in courses made available to freshmen and sophomores in some universities in the United States.

Three other devices are somewhat related to the blackboard-magnetic boards, cork boards, and flip charts. Each of these three has played a role in providing a setting which stimulates learning.

When machine-made letters, numbers, and symbols are placed against the magnetic board they remain on the board until lifted from it with a gentle pull. Through the use of the letters, numbers, and symbols, the teacher can construct a chart quickly, in the presence of a class. For example, he or she can show railroad mileage in the United States in 1850 and in 1900 by placing letters, numbers, and several identical symbols, each shaped like a steel rail, with each symbol representing a stipulated number of miles. The chart thus produced stands out sharply and can be seen clearly. It has a professional touch, for the magnetized objects have been manufactured with precision and are as legible as the contents of a printed chart.

Cork boards have been used by schools and museums for many years for exhibit purposes. Mounted much like a blackboard they provide a smooth, firm surface which can be penetrated easily by thumb tacks and map tacks. Special exhibits which have been planned and assembled and which are made up of clippings, posters, charts, photographs, and the like can be placed on a cork board in a few minutes. The exhibit can be used for one class and removed before the next class occupies the room in which it is displayed.

Flip charts consist of a series of charts fastened like a notebook that is bound at the top rather than at the side. The series can be hung on a stand in the classroom and used in much the same way as a series of large maps which are bound at the top and displayed from a stand. Published flip charts on a variety of subjects can be purchased. The ingenious teacher can also sketch with crayon, on large sheets of paper, material relevant to the subject at hand and have the sheets on a stand when the class assembles. As instruction progresses one chart (published or homemade) can be used, then it can be flipped up and over so as to bring the next chart into view, and then the next, and so on.

MECHANICAL AIDS IN TEACHING

Just as the introduction of printing and of the blackboard were great steps forward in education, so was the development of projectors and other mechanical aids which are used daily in teaching. After the slide projector and the motion picture projector had been produced, the filmstrip projector and the opaque projector came into use. Each of these types of mechanical aids can facilitate teaching. Mechanical aids such as cutaway and working models and real machines (to explain functioning of the internal combustion engine and the like), playback equipment, and radio and television receivers also have their place in the process of instruction.

These mechanical aids to teaching do not supplant the teacher. A good teacher's enthusiasm and explanations are of more value to most students than anything they receive from teaching aids which are only exhibited. There is no automatic substitute for good instructing by a competent and understanding teacher. A good teacher makes wise use of any available kind of mechanical or other visual and auditory aids to education, but he still guides the learner. When mechanical aids are used in a mechanical way, a mere mechanical atmosphere results. Teaching skill is necessary in order to use mechanical and other visual and auditory aids well in a classroom, laboratory, or shop. The teacher's expert touch in selection, introduction, use, and follow-up is essential. The use of visual or auditory aids usually needs to be accompanied by student activity and teacher guidance in order to be effective. In short, mechanical aids supplement but do not replace instruction by the teacher.

As mentioned previously, a change of pace or a change of scenery while instructing is desirable. Visual and auditory aids to education can be used excellently to provide such change. A motion picture today, a half dozen slides tomorrow, distribution of three or four glossy photographs on Monday, a special demonstration on Wednesday, and, next month, a field trip to a local museum, to a botanical garden, or to a courtroom while court is in session—all have their place in teaching a subject, particularly on the high-school level. However, there should not be a fast moving parade of changes of a type which confuses.

In changing pace each visual or auditory aid which is used to provide the change should be pertinent to the subject matter at hand, and should be selected carefully. Frequently it is necessary to prepare the class before using a visual or auditory aid. The teacher should point out to pupils what they are to look or listen for and what to report on after the aid has been presented. Selected members of the class can assist in this preparation step.

A mechanical aid should not be used just because it is at hand. It should not be introduced merely for the sake of having something different. A motion picture used in a chemistry class should ordinarily relate to chemistry and to the phase of the course being studied at the time the film is projected, and

should present information accurately. However, it is conceivable that with advance planning it may be appropriate to assemble the members of a chemistry, an English, and a French class to see a particular film and thus show it to the three groups with but one projection.

Slides, too, should be selected and scheduled with care. In nearly every case it is better to use six or seven which are well selected than to use fifty which just happen to be available.

Instruction should be made interesting for the pupil. Nevertheless, it is possible to go too far in the direction of making learning interesting. There is no easy way to a balanced education. Many high-school pupils feel they should be amused. They rebel at drill (constructive repetition) and at actual study. Considerably less emphasis is placed on study in some high schools and in some elementary schools than should be the case. Education cannot be confined to shortcuts. More must be done than amuse pupils if they are to learn the basic facts which are included in the curriculum. The use of motion pictures and other visual and auditory aids to education, such as recordings and field trips, if used to amuse will accomplish little good. They are appropriate when selected with a view to fixing in the minds of the students pertinent points in the lesson at hand and then used skillfully as an aid to instruction. Visual and auditory aids should be used in such a way as to develop keen observation. Too often children and youth receive almost no training at home or in school to look carefully at an object, picture, or process in the light of what they already know about it or what they might want to know. Much learning in and out of school and much pleasure in later life, as, for example, when traveling, can be derived from a habit of keen observation which is developed during the school years. Some mechanical aids are in use in every good school. Five well-known aids of a mechanical type are commented on below.

Projectors—The 16mm. sound motion picture projector is the most practical type motion picture projector for use in the classroom, laboratory, or shop. A great number of sound and silent films can be secured in 16mm. size from film libraries and used on this projector.

In showing a film, or almost any mechanical aid, the teacher or a member of the class should make a brief talk to introduce it to the group so that all who are to see and hear will know why it is being used and so they can obtain some idea as to its subject matter. The remarks should whet an appetite for the film rather than give a full explanation of it. The class can be drawn into a discussion of "what should we look for." The film should then be shown, after which the group ought to discuss it.

Slide projectors are of two main types, those which project an image on a screen from a $3\frac{1}{4}$ " x 4" glass slide and those which project an image from a 2" x 2" paper-mounted or glass-mounted slide. Combination projectors which will accommodate both the large and the small slides are available. By selecting

from thousands of slides on deposit in public and commercial collections and by making slides to fit a special need, a teacher can find the slide projector a valuable aid in presenting a wide range of information to students. Statistical tables, closeups of a grasshopper in natural color, or a picture of the United Nations' Assembly at its opening session can readily be put on slides.

The filmstrip projector accomplishes almost the same purpose as the slide projector. A filmstrip consists of a series of photographs, drawings, tables, and the like, arranged in a desired sequence and printed on a strip of film 35mm. (approximately an inch) in width. Each strip deals with a separate subject somewhat as does a book or a chapter in a book. When the teacher desires to project only a few images on the screen, selectivity in projecting becomes more difficult with the filmstrip than with a collection of slides. The filmstrip, however, has the advantage of being inexpensive and immediately ready for use. If it fits the teacher's need at a particular place in the semester's work, it can be shown as is and without concern about its sequence becoming disarranged. In addition, the filmstrip can be transported and stored with extreme ease. When accompanied by sound, the filmstrip becomes more complex but is still a relatively simple mechanical aid in teaching.

The use of the opaque projector, which reflects pictures from cards, books, or magazines, has been mentioned above in connection with the use of printed materials.

Models and machines.—Models are useful in showing mechanical operations or interior parts which the student rarely has an opportunity to see and which are difficult for the student to visualize. A cutaway working model of the cylinder and closely related parts of a steam locomotive shows how steam is admitted to the steam chest and into the cylinder, how the sliding valve in the steam chest alternately opens and closes the steam ports and opens the exhaust port, and the like. The use of a working model greatly simplifies an explanation as to how a steam engine operates and how it transmits power. It enables most pupils to understand the explanation much more quickly than otherwise.

A cutaway, working model of a one-cylinder internal combustion engine which shows how the piston, valves, and crankshaft operate assists students greatly in understanding the principle upon which the gasoline engine is based. In a high-school vocational shop which is reasonably well equipped, one might expect to find an automobile engine and perhaps an airplane engine, as well as cutaway, working models. Furthermore, if several automobile engines are on hand, one may have sections cut out so that, as the crankshaft is turned slowly by hand, pupils can see how the crankshaft and camshaft co-ordinate the opening and closing of each intake and exhaust valve and the motion of the piston in each cylinder so that repeated explosions in uniform sequence in all cylinders will be possible and will provide a steady flow of power.

Playback equipment—This consists of a record player, amplifier, and a speaker—in other words, an electric phonograph. It is used to play ordinary phonograph records and is also used to play recordings of radio programs and special events. In large city school systems it is not unusual for buildings to be equipped with a central sound system. When this is the case, a recording can be played in a control room in the building and broadcast in a designated classroom through a speaker located in the classroom. A simple, portable electric phonograph will work very well.

Recordings are available which are useful in teaching foreign languages, social studies, literature, drama, poetry, folk music, speech, and other subjects. Recordings which are useful in teaching social studies, science, and health classes in high school can be purchased for a reasonable amount from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

As in the case of projectors, models, and machines, a distinct advantage of playback equipment as an aid in teaching lies in the fact that it can be used at the time when it will fit into the class schedule. For example, if a particular recording will dramatize and clarify the subject matter to be covered during the sixth week of a course, arrangements can readily be made to have the playback equipment and record on hand at that time.

Radio receivers—Radio programs have been tied in with classroom work in some large city school systems. Special broadcasts and selected programs for rebroadcast are put on the air during school hours by college, university, and other radio stations and are heard in the classroom. Such arrangements are rather difficult to work out at times, but an historical event dramatized on the air by professional voices or by a senior high-school history class and listened to by senior high-school pupils throughout a city suggests that the radio receiver in the classroom can be an effective mechanical aid in teaching. Several portable radio receivers can serve an entire school by being carried from room to room.

In a high-school building having a rather elaborate central sound system, radio programs received in a control room within the building can be heard in some classrooms simultaneously, while pupil programs conducted in the building can be broadcast from a microphone at the same time to pupils in the remaining classrooms. By using a tape recorder and rebroadcasting, there will be no difficulties in scheduling either type of program.

Through the use of the microphone feature of the central sound system, pupils operate a miniature radio station and learn much by doing so. For instance, a class in English can conduct a radio drama closely allied with the subject matter considered during the semester. The members of the class can be taught to be accurate in handling facts and to be observant of grammatical rules when preparing their script, and to be careful in pronunciation of words when speaking before the microphone. A social studies class can conduct a

roundtable discussion of a current issue of national or international importance, *after spending many hours studying all sides of the question*. Pupils in other classes can listen in on such school-produced programs and receive benefit from doing so, providing scheduling and follow-up are taken care of appropriately.

Television Receivers—Television, in greater degree, presents almost the same possibilities and handicaps as radio, as a mechanical aid in teaching. Television receivers are, of course, more expensive than radio receivers. The teaching value of television surpasses that of radio because of the fact that it reaches the mind by way of the eye as well as by way of the ear.

A teacher who is recognized as outstanding in teaching science at the high-school level can appear on television occasionally during the school day and present a demonstration of a scientific principle included in the high-school curriculum. In their classrooms the program can be seen and heard by all high-school pupils in the city who are enrolled in the course to which the demonstration relates. In the school system of a large city, such use of a mechanical aid in teaching requires co-operative planning on the part of a number of teachers and administrators. It indicates one of many possibilities of mechanical aids to assist in providing a proper setting for learning.

SPECIAL PROJECTS

The expert teacher occasionally resorts to special projects which are geared to the interests and abilities of a particular pupil or to an entire class. This is done to create an active response when other approaches are failing to arouse the student or the class. Christopher Morley wrote, "I have often noticed, in burning a pile of dead leaves, that the mass that seems burned through will, if turned over with the rake, burst into fresh flame. Down under the mound, smothered by weight and closeness, were many fragments that needed only air and freedom to burst into golden blaze." (See front cover, *The Family*, Volume 5, Number 10, February, 1925.) Pupils, whether dull, average, or brilliant, who usually do not respond well to classroom routines, or who temporarily are responding poorly, and who may be somewhat smothered by them, sometimes burst into a golden blaze of response when assigned a special project geared to their interests and abilities.

Day after day many pupils respond poorly to classroom routines. For short periods of time—two or three days, or several weeks—a majority of pupils in a class seem to be lethargic. Occasionally a pupil who usually adjusts very well to school will lose interest in studying. Any of these three situations may take place in spite of excellent teaching. Attractive textbooks and workbooks used appropriately, blackboard strategy, and skillful use of mechanical teaching aids cannot always avoid them. Even field trips to a manufacturing plant, to a court room, to a bird sanctuary, and the like will not guarantee elimination of lethargy toward school. When the teacher is faced with any of the three situations, the use of special projects about something useful can awaken, and

even excite, those pupils who are operating at low efficiency. Once the spark has been fanned, a healthy response to instruction can be obtained.

If a science teacher in junior high school finds that most members of a class are becoming disinterested in the course which he is teaching, he can do startling things to revive interest. He can assign a special project calling for almost immediate action, such as having each member bring to class the next day a live animal and make a well-planned, concise, one-minute talk about its natural habitat and diet. In assigning a special project of this kind, it will be necessary for the teacher to prescribe a few simple rules, such as (1) dogs and cats will be excluded! (2) animals must be placed in secure, ventilated containers, and (3) they must be removed from the school at the end of the day.

The scurrying around late in the afternoon by each member of the class for a white mouse, hamster, squirrel, rabbit, guinea pig, and the like, the fashioning of a ventilated container, and, in the evening, the searching of books or consulting with other people for information about habitat and diet of the animal, the organizing of the information into a one-minute talk, and, the next day, the composite results in class will stimulate a great deal of interest in science if the project is handled with even a small amount of imagination on the part of the teacher.

Different, and often more difficult, is the situation where one member of the class needs particular attention. A boy in senior high school may be nauseated by a required course in English but may delight in studying the life of Mark Twain. Through urging that boy to study the life of Mark Twain and having the boy keep specifically in mind the idea of writing an essay concerning his favorite Mark Twain books, and helping him to the extent which assistance is necessary in this project, the teacher can supply that air and freedom which the student needs to burst into enthusiastic endeavor. Through guiding the project with a light touch, the teacher can cause the boy to learn many of the facts and principles of English included in the course, whether he is a dull, average, or brilliant student.

To a senior high-school boy or girl of exceptional ability who shows little interest in a biology class, it can be suggested that he collect and arrange a series of pictures on a biological subject for showing to the class three weeks hence by means of an opaque projector, and that he project the pictures and explain them to the class while projecting.

In the instance of a high-school boy who detests French but claims he elected it as the lesser of two evils, and does rather well in the course as a result of a high IQ and a reasonably good aptitude for languages, exchanging correspondence in French with a boy in France has definite possibilities. The girl who shows little response to instruction in geography can become quite enthused about the subject if her teacher arranges for members of the class, who care to do so, to write letters to persons in other states and in Canada, England, and Australia for illustrated printed matter concerning some of the

places and products being studied by the class. Through co-operation with teachers and pupils in French and Spanish classes, materials can be collected in this same way from France, Spain, Mexico, and Central and South American countries, and interpreted. This collecting and interpreting can be used as a special project to arouse the interest of two or three groups of students and to teach co-operation between groups.

On the college level there is less need than in high school to provide special projects as a means of kindling or rekindling the student's interest. Moreover, on the college level there is a wide range of special projects which can be introduced to advantage when attempting to provide a proper setting for learning. For example, numerous bits of research which are worth undertaking and which pertain to a particular field can be called to the attention of pupils majoring in that field. The pupils can be assured that assistance and extra credit will be given to those who undertake one of the bits of research and complete it successfully. At the end of their junior year, pupils majoring in a given field can be asked to express their preference as to seminars and courses to be offered during their senior year. In line with the preferences expressed special projects can be developed.

Any project specially assigned should be geared to both the ability and interest of the pupil. Sometimes it is hard to select appropriate projects to be used simultaneously by all pupils in a large class, especially in high school, where there may not be a large variety of appropriate activities at hand.

A special project that is difficult for the dull pupil or easy for the brilliant will fail to present a challenge. The dull pupil will become discouraged as a result of the assignment. The rapid learner may lose interest in the project and respect for the teacher. Consequently, there often is advantage in assigning special projects on an individual basis.

In order to use the special project as a means of establishing an atmosphere which will arouse a pupil (or a group) who is not responding well, it is wise to consult the pupil (or the group) in the selection of the project and let him (or them) enjoy a pride of selection and planning. Consulting the pupil can produce a far-reaching stimulus to later study. Sometimes, however, it is difficult to explain to the pupil why you disapprove his choice if sole reason for disapproval is his lack of ability to execute it.

Follow-up is necessary after a project is assigned. Without it the pupil's initiative in developing the project may soon wane. A special project which is virtually tossed to a pupil in high school or college and then forgotten by the teacher will probably dry up like grass which receives no attention during a drought. Occasional inquiry on the part of the teacher as to how the project is progressing, as to what items of particular interest have been found as a result of carrying on the project, and calling the pupil's attention to helpful sources from time to time can keep the fires of interest burning steadily.

REASONABLE SCHOLASTIC STANDARDS

Maintaining reasonable scholastic standards is mainly an administrative problem. It is a problem which requires clear thinking and respected leadership. If the principal of a high school or the superintendent of schools of a city decides that emphasis will be placed on scholarship and if he moves slowly at first, and consistently with good judgment, he can achieve reasonable standards within two or three years. On the college level a dean or president can do likewise.

The large increase in high-school and college enrollment in the United States during the last fifty years resulted in the admission of many persons having little desire to learn or relatively little mental ability. A half century ago those who attended American high schools and colleges comprised a rather highly selected group. Nevertheless, present-day mass education in the United States has not been completely a levelling influence. The best pupils in high school and in college set an example which tends to raise the standards of scholarship throughout their own school. Owing to improved instructional materials and teaching methods, the best pupils in American high schools and colleges today are probably better informed than and just as analytical as were our best secondary-school and college students in previous generations.

In emphasizing scholastic standards it should be pointed out clearly to pupils that an understanding of the respective subjects which they study is more to their long-range advantage than are high grades. School administrators and teachers should anticipate and avoid situations which put an artificial value on best grades and situations which incite the pupil to strive exclusively for those grades rather than for learning.

Many school administrators fear to run counter to the easy philosophy of our times. They visualize the uproar that a community generally, and some influential persons in particular, may raise if reasonable scholastic standards are enforced.

A great number of city school superintendents and elementary and high-school principals make it a practice to see that all pupils, or almost everyone enrolled, regardless of circumstances, shall be promoted at the end of the semester. They push children and youth from grade to grade automatically, year after year without respect to effort, ability, or civility. This practice threatens the possibility of developing an atmosphere for purposeful educating and cheapens a high-school diploma. It destroys in large part scholarly potentialities of the pupil and in a short time wears thin the academic scruples of many teachers.

What is the function of America's high schools? Are they mere social clubs for the not-yet-grown-up? Is keeping youngsters off the street enough? No. If high schools were mere social clubs, they could be maintained as such at much less expense than if treated as though being semi-serious academic

institutions. High-school pupils should not be pushed on automatically in a superficial way, from one grade to the next. Such a policy defeats the major purposes of education and deadens almost any atmosphere for vital learning which may exist in a school where this practice prevails. This practice of automatic pushing on from grade to grade is alarmingly common in America's high schools.

Only several decades ago scholastic standards were enforced generally in high schools in this country. Today many high-school teachers who insist on academic achievement find they are out of harmony and soon learn that they must conform to a different order of things or have a rugged life.

Why should the dull and the bright, the hard working and the indolent, the co-operative and the insolent in school all receive the same recognition—passing to the next higher grade at the end of the semester? Certainly, providing the same recognition to all regardless of achievement is unfair to the pupil, especially to those whom it encourages to slide through life. Many of those will soon leave school and find that to a large extent sliding will get them into trouble.

It is argued that there are difficulties in caring for the pupil who is not promoted and that failing in school gives some boys and girls a feeling of inferiority. It is recognized that one who fails in school presents a problem, but it must be recognized, too, that life is realistic. Inferiority will be felt in life outside of school. Inferiority cannot be cushioned permanently by low standards in school. Low standards tend to breed disrespect. No school is likely to be challenging to a majority of those enrolled if the scholastic standards are low and if all can get through it by little more than putting in time. Such a school does not command the respect of those who are in close contact with it. A boy or girl who does unsatisfactory work in a school where everyone is promoted might very well make satisfactory grades, and profit by attending school, if reasonable standards of scholarship had been enforced from the time he or she entered elementary school. We develop respect for schools not by lowering but by raising standards of scholarship. In the absence of reasonable standards of scholarship, there cannot be a proper setting for learning. Where any kind of performance is satisfactory, there is little incentive for one to do his or her best.

This unhealthy practice of pushing boys and girls from grade to grade automatically from the time they enter the first grade until they reach the end of the last year in high school operates somewhat like the steady feeding of chunks of meat into a power driven meat grinder. All that enters—choice cuts, slightly spoiled pieces, if any, and bits of bone—come out of the other end and in a homogeneous mass. There is no separating or improving once the grinding process begins. And much the same is true of many of our schools.

Scholastic standards vary greatly in colleges and universities but in the main are open to less criticism than those in public elementary and high schools. Scholastic standards in many public school systems and in most of our large

universities are excellent, whereas in some public school systems and in some colleges they are deplorable.

Emphasis on athletics and social life in high school and college can contribute to desirable objectives of education. An approach to athletics which aims at teaching fair play and securing participation by those who need most to participate in active sports is one which should be encouraged. But, for an educational institution to commercialize athletics and attempt to do it in an enormous way and at the expense of reasonable standards of scholarship, as has been common practice in many high schools and colleges during the past three decades, is about as ridiculous and as far from its major purposes as for the owners of a furniture factory to attempt building ocean-going vessels as a side line.

Both athletics and social life have their place in high school and college when kept within reasonable bounds. By helping to give meaning and balance to life, athletics and social activities can tend to bolster rather than to destroy an atmosphere for vital learning. A number of specific thoughts need to be kept in mind in developing reasonable scholastic standards in any school. Among them are the following four:

1. *Show how to improve*—When a student does a poor job on an assignment or on a test, he should be told by the teacher that he has done poorly and how he can improve his work so that it will be acceptable. This approach definitely is a foundation stone in maintaining reasonable standards of scholarship, once the school administrator fixes a policy favoring such academic standards.

2. *Use good judgment in testing*—There is a close correlation between tests and standards of scholarship. Good judgment should be used in the matter of testing pupils on subject matter. If a teacher of sixth-grade, high-school, or college pupils relies exclusively on the bell curve in grading test papers, pupils are likely to become aware of this fact and take advantage of it, knowing that no established standard will be required in order to pass the test. They will know that, regardless of how poor the results of the test, an approximate proportion of the members of the class will receive high grades on it, an approximate proportion low grades, and the remainder neither high nor low. The class will then tend to sink to a low level of scholarship. On the other hand, a teacher who insists that pupils attain a certain grade on a test in order to pass and never makes compromises in grading examination papers will be embarrassed. He or she may destroy the interest of pupils in scholastic achievement by appearing to be too rigid and failing too large a percentage of the class members on tests.

The quality of a teacher's work and also the responsiveness of the class varies from week to week and from semester to semester. Special conditions, such as nearness of a holiday season, or intense rehearsals for a school play, the cast for which is made up largely of pupils from one class, can interrupt the progress of many members of a class during a particular week. Therefore, a teacher

will do well to strike reasonable compromises in scheduling tests, grading test papers, and in avoiding total reliance on the bell curve method.

3. *Give extra credit for extra work*—From the fifth and sixth grades to and including the last year in college, it is appropriate for a teacher to give a pupil extra credit for approved extra work completed satisfactorily and on a voluntary basis. If a pupil works out, correctly, an additional number of mathematics problems furnished by the teacher, on the pupil's request, the teacher should feel free to raise the pupil's grade on mathematics due to satisfactory completion of extra work on a voluntary basis. Giving credit for such effort beyond regular requirements helps to build an interest among pupils to increase their scholastic achievements.

4. *Provide special incentives for scholarship*—Children and youth can be stimulated to do good work in school. Teachers in elementary schools, high schools, and colleges should look for special ways to interest their pupils in study. One of the most obvious ways is to secure money to be used for cash awards to pupils making highest grades in a particular subject or for submitting a high quality piece of original work. The use of money as an incentive for scholarship, however, is fraught with so many hazards that it probably should be abandoned in favor of other incentives. It may be far better to publish an excellent essay in the high-school paper than to make a cash award to the pupil who wrote the essay. Nevertheless, it is well to encourage high-school pupils to earn college scholarships so as to enable them to enter college and defray a part of the expense of their education.

The use of an honor roll which eliminates invidious distinctions produces desirable results. The three or four pupils at the top of the list can be given equal recognition with no one being designated as "first."

Various incentives can be used but almost any group of incentives selected for pupils of one age group will differ from those selected for pupils of another age group, and, to a certain extent, selection of incentives will vary due to the type of locality in which the school is found. Some incentives for college pupils probably would not be appropriate for use in the upper elementary grades. A special incentive used successfully in a large city high school might not be suitable in a consolidated high school in a somewhat impoverished rural section or in the high school in a small coal mining town. In some communities, but not in others, it might be appropriate for a high-school principal to assure all pupils that those who stand in the upper third of their class, scholastically, at the beginning of their senior year will receive special, although not exclusive, attention, such as assistance in college entrance or in obtaining a job at the end of the year.

Special incentives for scholarship should aim to stimulate the person who seems to be doing poorly in school, just as these incentives should aim to stimulate the individuals who are already doing well. The slow learner should be observed carefully to see if he has the mental ability to progress from grade to grade

with his class. If it appears that he has, then the cause of his retardation should be determined and means found to overcome the cause. In numerous instances, when the teacher determines the cause of retardation in school on the part of a pupil having an IQ of 95 or more, that teacher can devise special incentives which will appeal to him and cause him to do well in school. Ingenuity in devising and providing those incentives is one mark of a good teacher and is a requisite in the establishing of an atmosphere for vital learning.

THIS WE SHOULD EXPECT:

That there be an atmosphere in schools on all levels which (1) shows pupils and students that teachers are interested in them, and (2) which builds (through skilful use of teaching techniques and school facilities and equipment) the confidence of pupils and students in themselves and in their teachers to the extent of whetting and maintaining an appetite to learn.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

A STUDY in over 600 cities of the United States indicates that while over 50 per cent assign officers for special work with juveniles, there are few places where such officers can get training for their work, according to the U. S. Children's Bureau of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The study was made jointly by the Special Juvenile Delinquency Project and the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and appears in *Police Services for Juveniles*, released by the Bureau. Compiled by Douglas H. MacNeil of the New Jersey Department of Institutions and Agencies, it is the first of a series of documents prepared by the Special Juvenile Delinquency Project and the Children's Bureau during the course of their joint activities in the past two years. This document was prepared to assist the National Conference on Curbing Juvenile Delinquency in its consideration of practical steps to be taken.

Persons attending this conference were professional workers, administrative personnel, leaders of citizen groups, and research workers who have been co-operating during the past two years with the Children's Bureau and the Special Juvenile Delinquency Project in laying the ground work for improved services for juvenile delinquents.

This 91-page publication includes suggestions on how officials and citizen groups can make the police role, in dealing with juveniles, more positive and effective, as well as presenting data collected in the study of practices in 611 cities. It is available from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., for 25 cents each.

The Junior High School Story in Color Film

W. EARL SAMS

PRODUCING a motion picture to tell the story of the junior high school in California proved to be a most interesting project. The teachers and classes which were filmed were surprised at the beneficial educational outcomes of this project which was made possible by the junior high-school principals. The enthusiasm of California junior high-school administrators for the educational program they are offering and the desire to solve problems as they arise prompt forty-three of these administrators to meet one Saturday each month to exchange views on their common problems. The group is divided into two separate sections and meets in the Los Angeles and San Francisco areas. Members of the committee are appointed by the sponsoring organization, the California Association of Secondary-School Administrators (CASSA). The Junior High Problems Committee was first appointed in 1937 and has performed a variety of services while working on ways of improving the educational program for early adolescents.

A *Handbook for California Junior High Schools*¹ prepared by the committee under the leadership of Chairman M. E. Herriott was published by the California State Department of Education in 1949 and rewritten for the December, 1951, BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.² This 132-page description of the program in the junior high school provoked considerable interest, served as a basis for common agreement on principles and philosophy, and also created a desire for all administrators to see some of the other schools in action. Visitation of other schools is being accomplished in part by the two subcommittees as they meet in different schools each month in northern and southern California. The need has often been expressed for a film depicting the objectives of the junior high school and how these objectives are being achieved. It was decided that such a 16mm. sound, motion picture, colored film should be produced in time for showing at the February National Association Secondary-School Principals Conference in Milwaukee and at the annual California Association of Secondary-School Administrators Conference, April, 1954, in San Francisco.

¹ Dr. M. E. Herriott, et. al., *Handbook for California Junior High Schools*, California State Department of Education, 1949.

² Dr. M. E. Herriott, et. al., "Organizing the Junior High School." BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. 35, No. 182, Dec. 1951, pp. 1-157.

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The task of producing the film became the responsibility of a subcommittee derived from the southern California group which selected Carl Ehmann, Principal of Lakewood Junior High School, Long Beach, as its chairman. Other members of the subcommittee were: Max M. Appleby, Harold B. Brooks, Meldrim Burrill, Lee Y. Dean, Marion E. Herriott, B. B. Howell, Mrs. Elda McCann, Edwin Olmstead, W. Earl Sams, and Mrs. Marian Wagstaff.

After a brief attempt to find an independent source of finance, the subcommittee decided to obtain funds, by individual subscription, from principals of junior high schools. Dore Schary of Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer Studios, who has a profound interest in education, provided much technical advice and editorial assistance. Wayne M. Mann of Palo Alto was engaged to produce the film, and W. Earl Sams of the State Department of Education was assigned as director.

The film committee decided upon an outline for the scenario that was based upon the "Ten Imperative Needs." It worked diligently over several week ends to list those scenes typical of the junior high school that illustrate ways in which these needs are being met. The result was a list of one hundred sixty educational experiences provided within the junior high schools. The list presented the first serious problem, since the film was limited to twenty-eight minutes. All forty-three principals serving on the Junior High Committee of CASSA were invited to suggest schools to be filmed. With the goal of producing a good educational film in mind, the group worked as a team. Forty-nine schools of California separated by 700 miles over the length and breadth of the state were finally filmed in the following communities: Burbank, Chico, Eureka, Long Beach, Los Angeles, Montebello, Napa, Oakland, Petaluma, Richmond, Riverside, Sacramento, Salinas, San Bernardino, San Diego, San Francisco, San Leandro, Santa Monica, Stockton, and Vallejo.

The State Department of Education aircraft was used for transportation between communities, and travel from school to school was facilitated by local school administrators. Such rapid transportation made it possible to shoot scenes in forty-nine different schools throughout the state in approximately twenty-five days. All schools provided a crew of student helpers, and fell into the spirit of the operation as if they were veterans in the "show business."

An outline for a proposed scenario was provided all participating schools. This produced a variety of results, some of which were significant and professional enough to warrant a full-length film. Scripts were prepared by most schools which were often detailed in every respect, including the title of the course, its objectives, lesson or problem for the period to be filmed, and a detailed statement of each scene with narration, suggested position of the camera, and names of the characters.

The purposes of the many junior high schools were synonymous in most respects, but probably the commonest objective that repeatedly came forward was the exploratory function. All forty-nine emphasized their desire to lead students to discover and to explore their own specialized interests, aptitudes,

and abilities as a basis for decisions regarding educational and vocational opportunities as well as to provide experiences with a stimulating wide range of cultural, social, civic, avocational, and recreational interests. These teenagers were often asked, while lights, camera, *etc.* were being set up, "what kinds of experiences are provided here that you feel are peculiar to the junior high school?" The answer often resolved itself to "exploration"; in fact, one "exceptional" pupil in a high seventh social studies class offered the reply, "Going to the junior high is like the life of the early explorers of our western hemisphere." Other stimulating replies included such things as, "I have learned how to study, how to budget my time to get things done at school and at home." It was evident that these teenage youth had enjoyed the experience in elementary school but were aware that in junior high school more and different opportunities are provided than were possible in the various elementary schools from which they had just come. These youth seemed to agree that use of the film *The Junior High School Story* would be an effective way of introducing incoming students to the junior high school.

Purposes or intended uses of the film had to be decided upon before a working narrative and shooting outline could be completed. The committee agreed to produce a film that would describe the objectives of the junior high school and how these objectives are being achieved. The uses of the film were to be:

1. For orientation of sixth-grade pupils and their parents
2. For teacher training, to provide prospective teachers with a good understanding of the program of the junior high school
3. For the information and education of adult advisory committees, boards of trustees, and others contemplating the establishment of a junior high-school program
4. For the information of the lay public

Space does not permit a detailed description of all significant scenes that were filmed. However, enthusiastic comments of the cast of approximately 50,000 teenage youth, their teachers, advisers, counselors, parents, and administrators provided such convincing evidence of the worth of modern education that a few special incidents are related.

Orientation, the method employed to adjust incoming students and their parents to the educational opportunities of the junior high school, received prominent attention. At Eastmont Junior High School in Montebello and University Heights Junior High School in Riverside, characteristic orientation was filmed in progress with older students taking a prominent part to help teachers, counselors, and administrators acquaint pupils and parents with the experiences ahead. A colored filmstrip depicting the school's history, its place in the community, the educational experiences it provides, and some important customs and traditions was a significant feature of one orientation plan. Eighth-grade boys and girls were designated as guides to meet new students and to plan orientation of their new charges to the new program, environment, and friends.

Counseling and guidance were observed to have progressed to a well-organized degree as uniform cumulative records, reports to parents, and tests to determine special capacities, interests, and needs were found to be in use. A representative program was featured in the film at Van Nuys Junior High School in Los Angeles.

All junior high schools provided convincing evidence that they emphasize experiences designed to help youth grow in their ability to observe, listen, read, think, speak, solve problems, and to write with purpose and appreciation. Some volunteered to stage these activities for the camera.

Some of the schools which invited the movie crew into classes concerned with basic spelling skills were Emerson in Los Angeles and Hoover in Oakland, where the lessons were observed to carry over into shop, homemaking classes, *etc.* The latter school has continuously placed special emphasis on spelling because they found spelling to be a skill in which this school could really excel, although the level of aptitude consistently tests in the low quartile.

Dramatic teaching of mathematics—arithmetic through algebra—was filmed in many schools. At Lick Junior High School in San Francisco the camera saw experiences being provided that help youth acquire mastery of the fundamental processes and make judgments based upon objective facts and information. A bicycle was brought into the classroom as the circumference formula was introduced. Colorful plane and solid geometric forms were in use in several classrooms at North Hollywood and King Junior High Schools in Los Angeles, and at Bancroft in San Leandro. The practice of providing a review mathematics course in the ninth grade for all students was observed in many schools.

Reading and the other language skills were exhibited prominently in such schools as Fulton and Gage in Los Angeles, while English students at Denman in San Francisco were conducting a letter-writing project which employed most of the communications skills and maintained interest at a high level as representatives of the class sent letters to and received mail from prominent people in strategic points around the globe. There were many examples of democratic organizations in these classrooms with students occupying positions as president, vice-president, and secretary, each carrying out effectively his assigned responsibilities. Group activities gave students actual practice in working with others while they learned new fundamental skills and put them to use.

How to study was an interesting unit that was filmed at Pasteur Junior High School in Los Angeles. The class responded genuinely to an unscheduled questioning from the director of the film project, giving convincing evidence that they had really acquired new study habits and appraised their value.

Science classes which were filmed at many schools constituted an instruction period in which a healthy curiosity was aroused. Students acquired scientific attitudes, learned how to solve problems scientifically, learned about the natural

and physical environment and at the same time utilized basic skills learned in other classes. Aptos in San Francisco, Woodrow Wilson in San Diego, and the Eureka Junior High School were schools where science programs were filmed.

The use of tours or field trips to employ significant features of the community as an educational laboratory was filmed with Richardson and Arrowview aviation students at the local airport in Riverside and Fulton students at the Museum of Science at Exposition Park in Los Angeles.

A variety of experiences basic to occupational proficiency were filmed. Although it was repeatedly emphasized that such courses were not intended to produce salable skills, they did provide ample opportunity for youth to gain insight into the world at work; and students at such schools as Jurupa and Chemawa in Riverside, Frick in Oakland, Luther Burbank and Muir in Burbank, Napa, and California in Sacramento were observed to be discovering their own personal interests and special aptitudes. Classes which were filmed in these schools were journalism, boys cooking, general shop, print shop, agriculture, office practice, and typing.

Citizenship experiences were a prominent feature of all junior high schools visited. Some of the most dramatic experiences observed were those associated with the student council programs in such schools as: Franklin in Long Beach, Hollenbeck in Los Angeles, and Washington in Salinas. In these schools the crew filmed hundreds of youth learning that citizenship includes both privileges and responsibilities and that no problem is insurmountable if properly attacked by the group. Mt. Vernon students were filmed directing traffic on campus and at nearby pedestrian crossings. Burroughs students in Los Angeles were filmed as they studied state and local government and associated these concepts with the national government. Vigorous participation in drafting bills and following them through the steps required to make laws and a personal interest in the Bill of Rights and our national Constitution were prominent in many schools. Culture and living habits of peoples of other countries were live subjects for social studies students of Portola in San Francisco whose interest in Europe was personalized by a well-planned unit. Americanization of teenage Oriental immigrants was filmed at Francisco Junior High School as a devoted teaching staff was observed using the skills of modern education as they taught fundamentals to eager and willing pupils.

Concern for the physical and mental health of junior high-school students was observed in the physical education and health services of many schools such as Lincoln in Santa Monica. Competitive, co-operative, coeducational play and instruction in folk and ballroom dancing were observed in Jefferson of Long Beach and Irving of Los Angeles where a staff which is specially qualified regularly directs wholesome mixed activities, combining social and physical education in a stimulating environment. Emphasis on safety and health was in evidence everywhere. This was especially so at Sun Valley in Los Angeles and Mann in San Diego where outstanding shop and physical education activities

were filmed. Water safety and swimming skills were not very prevalent at this level but were filmed at Petaluma. After-school recreation through the community center at Lafayette Junior High School in Los Angeles was filmed as children and their parents experienced wholesome leisure-time activities.

Successful home and family life was observed to be receiving tremendous impetus through courses designed to help boys and girls learn how to purchase and use goods, plan and prepare meals, sew, wash and iron, and care for children. Some of the schools offering coeducational courses in homemaking that reported particular success were: Mann and Sutter in Los Angeles and Roosevelt in San Diego. In some schools boys were observed in separate classes to be learning home arts through the cooking and sewing activities that are appropriate to their needs and carrying added possibility of familiarization with occupations for men who are adept in these skills. Such courses were filmed in Chico Junior High School and Jurupa Junior High School. The ninth-grade boys stated in a very convincing manner that they had already found many practical uses for the skills acquired in their home arts classes, 4-H Clubs, and related activities.

Experiences designed to help youth develop a sense of values, worth of material things, and appreciate the rights of ownership were prominent in the activities filmed at University Heights in Riverside where a bank owned and operated by students on the campus is a popular feature of the curriculum. Other significant experiences were observed at Hollenbeck in Los Angeles, where leadership and some corrective measures are successfully administered by students elected to their positions of responsibility by their peers. It was noticeable in many schools that pride in the appearance of the school was shared by most students in both new and old schools. It was not always the newly finished buildings that were cleanest and most orderly. Clean grounds and an orderly campus were the concern of student councils in most schools with Hoover in Oakland and Franklin in San Francisco as particularly commendable examples.

Actual experiences with the concepts, processes, and skills essential to successful participation in our economic system were filmed at many schools.

Opportunities for developing appreciation of and expression in the arts were observed in an abundance. Some students have developed so much skill and interest in creative art that their work had become part of the permanent interior decoration of such schools as Arrowview in San Bernardino and Lakewood in Long Beach. At the latter, school ceramics was observed to have both therapeutic and career possibilities.

Music instruction which had developed talent to such a state of perfection that it was enjoyed by all students and the community was filmed at Gage Junior High School, Los Angeles, where noontime listening of fine music was practiced, and in Bancroft in Los Angeles where a professional rendition of Haydn's *Surprise Symphony* was filmed and recorded. Choral work at a high level of

perfection was heard and filmed at Franklin in Vallejo. Elementary instruction in music associated with history and geography of the world was presented at Edison in Stockton. Teachers, students, and parents at many schools expressed genuine confidence in the value of creative experience and self-expression through music and art.

Experiences in group living were prominent in many schools as youth were observed using the democratic approach to all kinds of learning situations. The generous use of after-school social affairs and other recreational events planned and administered by youth were developing wholesome loyalties and were helping youth acquire skill in the co-operative approach to community problems. One student council was filmed in conference with a local councilman and a prominent businessman as they considered real civic and social problems. Many teachers demonstrated skill in helping youth direct their own learning and recreational activities with no apparent adult control. Without any suggestion from the director of the project, practically all social studies teachers utilized modern methods and materials of instruction, employed committee techniques, made use of newer evaluative procedures, and steadfastly insisted during the discussion period that followed, "Modern methods pay big dividends in holding youth in school, and in engaging them in purposeful learning activities." Learning-by-doing would be a practical title for the film because it exemplifies the philosophy of most junior high-school teachers.

The filming of significant features of the educational program in these forty-nine junior high schools engendered more enthusiasm than was ever anticipated. Over six thousand feet of film were used in the process, and the temptation to consume much more was constantly harassing the crew. With a limited budget of both time and money, restraint was necessary in every classroom. Commercial kodachrome was used in the filming to insure the best possible finished film. Unused footage unfortunately is useless with this process unless it too is processed. All footage not used for the finished film was retained by the Junior High Film Committee with the hope that it may be used in subsequent films that are designed to describe more specifically those features of junior high-school education which have important teacher recruiting or training implications.

It is not intended nor implied that all districts must establish junior high schools, but no one could experience the view of educational practice the film crew has witnessed without concluding that all communities should consider a junior high-school organization as a worthy educational goal. It is hoped that the film will help school districts everywhere properly appraise the unique place of the junior high schools in secondary education.

The foregoing may sound as if the educational features that have been filmed were atypical and visionary. Such was not the case at all. Teachers were aware that the classroom practice they presented to the camera had to be genuine. The ease with which all concerned went through the process assured the crew that the scenes were typical.

It is readily acknowledged that many of the other junior high schools of the country may offer programs superior to those that have been filmed, but the schools selected demonstrate trends in junior high-school education.

The composite of best teaching practices admittedly does not present a true picture of all nor any one school, but it does suggest a goal toward which all can strive. Some schools appear to have made great strides as they made maximum use of staff and facilities to employ modern methods of instruction and create the best possible program for all youth.

The confidence of the public in the junior high-school program was in evidence by reorganization of 8-4 plans to 6-3-3 and by the extensive junior high-school building program throughout the state. Bancroft Junior High School in San Leandro was filmed in process of construction.

Attractive surroundings or modern architecture were not observed to be a requisite of a good school, but they seemed to aid materially. The pride of students in their school was observed to be at a high level in both humble and extravagant schools. Morale and spirit soared where administration, faculty, and students worked co-operatively. It would be foolish to expect the reader to believe that no mistakes in educational method were observed. It is admitted that some deficiencies were in evidence, but the superior elements were so prominent that it could only be concluded that junior high-school educators have made tremendous progress in the brief period of forty-three years since the inception of the junior high school. The most stimulating thing about the intimate view of these schools is the earnest desire to continue to improve the educational offerings of the junior high school and to help preserve our American way of life.

This film may be secured on a rental basis. Schools located in California interested in showing the film should communicate with Mrs. Marian C. Wagstaff, Executive Secretary, Junior High School Council, Inc., 3745 Los Feliz Blvd., Los Angeles 29, California, for information as to its availability. Schools in other states of the Union who desire to show the film may secure it on a rental basis from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Your national association has purchased this film entitled *The Junior High School Story*. It is available on a rental basis for a two-day period for \$15. This rate includes all mailing costs to and from schools. Already a number of requests have been received. Apply now for a date on the schedule for 1954-55. *Be sure to give at least three choices of dates in order to assure a reservation.* If your school is located outside of the state of California, send your reservation to: Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

A Disciplinary Policy as an Effective Aid in Secondary Classroom Administration

IRVIN A. KELLER

DISCIPLINE occupies a peculiar position in the modern school in that it is both an end and also a means to that end. Implied in any statement of educational objectives will be found elements that, when welded together, provide the basis for what is frequently referred to as self-discipline of the individual. To achieve such an objective, the school provides mental and moral training and exercises whatever control over the individual that is necessary until he has reached the level of self-control inherent in the objective. Although they differ as to the means by which it should be achieved, parents expect schools to exercise control over students, and the lack of such control is almost always sure to attract public attention and bring about criticism of the school's administration. Consciousness of this fact causes superintendents and principals to consider the ability to discipline students one of the most essential qualities of a teacher. "How is his classroom discipline?" "Can he discipline students?" These are two of the most frequently asked questions by those employing teachers. Such questions seem to indicate that the classroom teacher is expected to shoulder the major proportion of the responsibility for discipline. The consensus appears to be that, although the ability to discipline alone will not ensure success in teaching, one cannot be a successful teacher without the ability to manage and control students.

Much has been said and written about the subject of discipline. Theories have been advanced that range from "free discipline" to authoritarian control. Various experiments have been tried in student participation in the responsibility of discipline through such organizations as student councils, student courts, and other similar attempts to secure social pressure from the peers of the students that must be disciplined. The preventive phase has received much attention, and some agreement has been reached as to the best principles to employ to avoid disciplinary problems; however, every school has found it necessary to use corrective measures at times. It is in this corrective phase that much disagreement and misunderstanding exists, and no general procedure or principle has been discovered to solve the many problems inherent in correcting students.

An examination of current conditions and procedures reveals that secondary-school principals in general desire that teachers correct students in the classrooms and that they send problem students to the principal's office only when they find

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themselves unable to manage them. This latter procedure frequently is interpreted as a weakness in the teacher that even the students will sense. Perhaps some teachers do show an attitude that the principal or counselor should be an expert who sees to it that students conduct themselves properly; however, teachers on the other hand have a right to expect support from the principal's office in matters of discipline. The one thing that is apparent in any of these conditions is that to have good discipline in a school requires common understanding and co-operation by both the faculty and administration. It is the purpose of this article to explain how the formulation of a definite disciplinary policy by a school can form the basis for a common understanding, enhance necessary co-operation between faculty and administration, and thereby make the efforts of teachers more effective.

The author first became conscious of the need for a disciplinary policy when as an undergraduate student he heard prospective student teachers discussing whether or not they would be permitted to correct or punish students for misconduct during their terms of practice teaching. One could not help but notice the uncertainty and anxiety expressed. A few years later he found himself confronted with this situation by accepting the position as principal of College High School. Upon inquiry he found that there had been no definite rules as to what a student teacher could or couldn't do. To prevent the uncertainty and anxiety that formerly existed, the policy that subsequently will be explained was formulated.

POLICY AT COLLEGE HIGH SCHOOL

Although no campus laboratory school can be a typical public school in all respects, the need for and place of classroom discipline is just as significant and necessary as in any other school. The responsibility of student teachers in classroom control varies greatly in these schools as does the authority they are given. It is believed, however, that a policy and procedure that has proved effective for such a school also will prove to be so for a public school.

The student teachers in College High School acquire understanding of both the preventive and corrective phases of discipline prior to their practice teaching. The importance of clear objectives, careful planning, interesting presentations of lessons, good motivating techniques, appropriate learning activities, and expediting of routine matters are emphasized as preventives of disciplinary problems. The policy and procedure that is followed in our school when students need correction is carefully explained and a manual that includes a written statement of such is put in their hands at the time of their approval for practice teaching. This is considered a part of the readiness program prior to their teaching. There are no rules as to what they are permitted to do or prohibited from doing, and they are given full authority in the classroom when teaching, just as they will be given in the public schools.

There is a common understanding by the student teachers, high-school students, supervisors, and the administration as to the policy and procedure that is to be followed in matters of discipline. Each teacher understands that he has the responsibility and authority in the classroom to maintain good order. If a student's behavior causes some difficulty after the preventive measures are taken, the teacher knows that his first responsibility is to have a conference with the student to secure the type of behavior that is desired. When it is evident that such conference or conferences do not get the co-operation of the student, the teacher is expected to suspend the student from class and send him directly to the principal's office. The student is asked to give an oral explanation of his difficulty. Nothing is done at this time to correct him. After he gives his explanation, he is informed that it is his problem to solve and that, before he will be re-admitted to the class, he must get the teacher's permission to re-enter. He is given the following application form to be filled out by him and his teacher. He is to report to the teacher at the close of the period for a conference for this purpose:

APPLICATION TO RE-ENTER CLASS	
Name	Date
Cause of suspension	
.....	
<i>If granted permission to re-enter my class upon the consent of my teacher and supervisor, I solemnly promise to conduct myself in such manner that will be a credit to myself and my class. I clearly understand that, if I am suspended from my class again, my parents must secure permission for me to re-enter.</i>	
Signed	Student
I hereby grant permission to to re-enter	
the	class on the above conditions.
Signed	Teacher
	Supervisor
	Principal
Comment:	

This procedure immediately puts the student on the defensive and places the burden of discipline squarely upon his shoulders. The teacher has been instructed to be quite frank in explaining to the student the behavior that he expects of him and the conditions under which he will permit him to re-enter the class. After the student understands what the teacher expects and indicates that he wants to be re-admitted, he is asked to sign the pledge on the application and the teacher

signs the permit thereon for him to re-enter. The student is then required to report to the supervisor of the class to explain his difficulty and to get the supervisor's permission and signature to re-enter. Finally, he reports back to the principal's office with his application for the principal's signature. He is asked if he thoroughly understands the cause of his suspension from class and the conditions under which he is being permitted to re-enter. A reminder is made of the fact that, if he is suspended by this teacher a second time, he will be suspended from school and must have his parents come to the principal's office to secure permission for him to re-enter. In the ten years that this policy has been in effect, only one parent has had to get this permission for a student. After it was made certain that the parents understood the cause of the suspension, they were asked if they were willing to give the school their full co-operation in helping their son. This they assured us they would do, and we had no further difficulty with the boy. Should parents fail to express their willingness to co-operate, they will be asked to withdraw their child from our school; however, we do not anticipate that this will become necessary. (In a public school the school board would be the body that would have the final authority and would have to take this action. Hence, it would be necessary to have the board's sanction of the policy and assurance of its support.)

There are several advantages inherent in this type of disciplinary policy that merit additional clarification and consideration. It provides a common understanding for all concerned and makes clear the part of each person in maintaining good behavior. Whenever correction is necessary because of a student's failing to respond to the counseling of a teacher, the procedure puts the student on the defensive and the responsibility for solving his difficulty is placed upon his shoulders in that he must go to the teacher and ask for a conference when suspended. This magnifies the position of the teacher and creates a more favorable situation in which to help the student learn better behavior. Too, the responsibility of the teacher is commensurate with his authority. He must counsel the student and state the conditions under which he will be permitted to re-enter the class. (In the several years that this policy has been in effect in our school not a single student teacher has failed to get an agreement from a student to the conditions desired, and the fact that only one student has been suspended twice by the same teacher indicates the effectiveness in securing student co-operation.) The pledge signed by the student makes clear that the school expects and will ask for the co-operation of the parents if he should continue to cause difficulties. There is a mutual understanding of the sharing of responsibility by the faculty and the administration and of the co-operation that is necessary. Teachers know that they have the support of the administration because of the fact that a student will not be re-admitted to class until the teacher is satisfied; the administration knows that the teacher has assumed his share in disciplining the student when the application is signed by the student and teacher and brought back to the principal's office for final permission to re-enter the class. Perhaps the greatest

advantage is that the policy provides for the teaching of better behavior rather than for punishment of the student. Since it has been followed, we have found it unnecessary to punish students to secure improved behavior.

The purpose for writing this article has not been to support the disciplinary policy and procedure described as being the only or most effective means of disciplining students, but rather to emphasize the value and importance of formulating a policy that is understood by students, faculty, parents, and the administration. Such a policy, it is believed, will provide greater school harmony and improved teaching conditions.

DRIVER EDUCATION

DRIVER education has assumed an increasingly important position in the curriculum of the nation's high schools, colleges, and universities during the last 18 years. From a pioneer course at Pennsylvania State College in 1936, the subject has advanced to a present total of well over 425 courses in more than 200 colleges throughout the 48 states. Of the more than 23,000 high schools in the country, over 6,000 have training cars and conduct complete driver education programs. Several thousand others give some classroom instruction.

"The staggering figures of death, injury, and property loss for just one holiday weekend should be enough to convince the public and educational skeptics that driver education is an essential part of the preparation of every youth for effective living in today's and tomorrow's society," according to Dr. Herbert J. Stack, director of New York University's Center for Safety Education. Dr. Stack is co-editor with Dr. Leon Brody, director of the NYU Center's research and publications, of the first college text book on "Highway Safety and Driver Education," published by Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York. The new 464-page book has 24 chapters which contain the combined knowledge and research of 55 traffic engineers and enforcement officials, college and high-school instructors, and insurance and state safety agency officials.

Dr. Stack and his colleagues suggest in their book that school administrators alter the scheduling of driver education from the senior to the sophomore year. He states: "This change is necessary if the schools are to reach a maximum number of future drivers. By the present system there are two groups that are not reached—those who drop out of school to go to work and those who have already learned to manipulate a motor vehicle sufficiently to meet the minimum requirements for a driver's license. If driver education were to be offered at the sophomore level, the point at which most students reach the minimum legal driving age, most of the boys would be interested. States which set the minimum driving age at 18 years, in a misconceived plan for cutting down traffic violations and accidents, are defeating their own efforts. This procedure of raising the minimum driving age circumvents the one ray of hope for significantly improving drivers and reducing traffic accidents. This hope lies in a complete course in driver education for all American youth."

"Dizzy Daisies" and "Daffy Delinquents"

CHARLES A. TONSOR

THE newspaper exposé of juvenile delinquency recently conducted in New York City caused quite a stir, more so among students than most people think. The young people were peeved, not because the situations were not true; they were and are not disputable; but because they did not take note of what every student knew full well, that every day such actions occur and have occurred for a long time past and will continue to occur. As one student put it, "We always have had and always will have our dizzy daisies and daffy delinquents, but they're only a handful. Why take it out on the rest of us?" We adults must admit the logic of the position; for, don't we talk of the "lunatic fringe" and "why blame us" on our own level?

To these two, I am inclined to add a third category—in between the two and sometimes overlapping each—those who have "*too much ego in their cosmos.*" The phrase I take from Kipling's "Bimi, the Beast." The real troublemakers are often those who have too much ego in their cosmos; they are firmly convinced nothing can be done to them; they know everything can be "fixed"; they know they are too smart to be caught. They know "*it can't happen to me.*" They are the chance-takers, the thrill-seekers, the h--- raisers. They and only they have anything to say about what they think, say, and do. They are stubborn, deaf to argument, aggressive, domineering, often sadistic, and, like a colt, become tame only when their spirit is broken; when a rider has proven himself their master.

Part of army training in the old cavalry days involved proving to a horse that the rider was master. A cavalryman, as he stood on the ground, would throw a rambunctious horse by curling the reins about his mount's neck and then giving a sharp pull downward. This got the horse off balance and down he went. Then the rider sat on his mount's head for five or more minutes until the horse said "uncle." If the first dose didn't complete the task, a second was given. Few horses could survive this without a considerable dent in their ego. Thereafter the rider was boss. Too many young people today live on the idea that *they are boss*, that *they and they alone* are master of their fate.

The dizzy daisies, I found out, were the "thing-to-do-ers." They did what they did because it was the thing to do. They went for liquor because adults did, especially those they knew. Creating disturbance was the thing to do because the radio, comic, or what-have-you pictured such situations vividly. Coming to school with a flask was the thing to do for a celebration. There was no anti-social bias behind the actions; they conformed to the code of "things to be done." They were just "too dizzy" to see the real situation. They nodded in the breeze of "popularity." They were "big shots."

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The daffy delinquents, I found out, were well known to students. They had a "screw loose" somewhere which made them do the "craziest things," senseless things, "damn fool things." Psychiatrists may doubt that persons are psychotic but the young people have some ideas in that direction. Punishment for them is no deterrent, nor is a good home. They act; and their mates are afraid to hazard a guess why, other than that they are "daffy"; i.e. *non compos mentis*!

Notice that the young people have not set the blame on anybody. They accept the situation as a situation. They have no opinions on what to do about it other than at times "to knock their block off." Perhaps this is the cavalry idea coming to the fore. That there are contributing factors we know, but apparently to young people, since they cannot change the contributing factors, the "knocking the block off" constitutes a "last ditch" control of the performance of further acts.

We as adults must ask ourselves, "Can it be that the causative factor in the increasing percentage of delinquency is the breakdown of the educational process because of a fundamental fallacy in philosophy?" The situation is nationwide; hence the causative factor must be nationwide. The new philosophy of "expression" assumes that the child is inherently developed to fit into a social pattern and that its reactions will be good; hence, must not be suppressed. But they are not! The child today is as much a savage as his remote ancestors were, with the same instincts; and delinquency has many aspects of the call of the wild, if I may borrow a phrase from Jack London. When five-year-olds take a baby from a carriage and kick it around for a football, there is something radically wrong in their upbringing. That is pure unadulterated savagery which must be suppressed by training; there is too much ego in the cosmos.

That is true also of all domestic animals. When that gentle tabby or her kitten runs wild in the woods, it is as wild as the bob cat. The pooch runs wild with the coyote. The colt has to be "broken." Civilization is *not* a natural instinct; it is a *learned skill* and civilized conduct results from *suppression* of savage instincts either by force or the development of reason or the sublimation of the primitive instincts through substitution of desirable activities. In the case of juvenile delinquents, this process has not occurred.

To raid, to kill, to torture, to steal, to gang up are instincts for survival in the savage world. In the civilized world, they are replaced by other activities except in times of war, and under war psychoses they come to the fore even among non-combatants. Let's stop blaming this and that and get down to brass tacks: the system and philosophy of training the young. Plutarch nearly two millennia ago in a book, *On Punishments*, not a very thick book, analyzed the system of natural punishments. It is worth reading. Herbert Spencer in his treatment of punishment is worth reading.

Ever watch an animal taking the ego out of the cosmos of a kitten or a pup? The dog will play with the pup and then, when the pup gets too fresh, there's a yelp. Ma or pa has let it be known that there is a point beyond which the pup

cannot go. So the cat will play with the kitten. If the kitten gets too fresh, there's a swipe of the paw, the kitten rolls over with a meow. Ever see a mother bear teach a lesson to a fresh cub? A swipe of the paw and the cub bites the dust! Yet a mother with a three-year-old in a bus will let the youngster hit her and, when she pushes the hand away, will receive another wallop without protest. She is allowing too much ego to develop in that cosmos. Not so awful now, but *later!* Mother has the idea that the child will grow up to know better; far from it, the child will know better than ma.

Perhaps an experience of my own will serve to illustrate. While I was in the fourth grade in elementary school, I palled with a group of boys, one of whom had a father who worked in the assembly freight yard of the Long Island Railroad at Atlantic and Fourth Avenues, Brooklyn. It was fascinating to watch the long freights with their varicolored cars. My father found out and sensed trouble. He warned me not to go. But who wants the gang to call him a "fraidy-cat"? I was found there once again. Came a very stern warning. Again the call, "Come on, we'll be back early; he won't know." I was leaning on the low guard rail watching a long freight go by. The gate tender was standing in his house. Suddenly I heard a loud crack and then felt a sting on the rump as if a nest of hornets had been let loose. The gate keeper let out a long "Ha, Ha, Ha!" Some people waiting to cross let out loud guffaws. And I walked home with father, smarting and much smarter than I had been. The following week one of the group lost a leg when he fell trying to board one of the cars. It could have been I!

Much of our education, the non-school education, today produces too much ego in the cosmos. The comics, with their supermen, their sadism, their neurotic activity; and radio and TV Westerns; the movies do just that. Alcoholism among secondary-school youth may be traced to just that, and it is increasing. All these activities inflate the ego and remove inhibitions that are required for successful life in a community. Add to this the effect of war psychosis and education must plan to meet the issue head on or admit its failure to produce a civilized human being.

All the money spent by state and social organizations will be wasted if early education continues under the philosophy of "the child can do no wrong." Far truer is "the child *will* do wrong in an organized community unless we 'train up the child in the way he should go.' " We need to have very definite ideas of *how* he should go and *how* we should train him. Methods and goals valid for three millennia of civilized experience should not be cast aside at the dictum of an educational philosopher.

The "daffy delinquent" is no easy person to handle for the reason that he is the product of a considerable period of time. A situation similar to a covered kettle of water on a stove has been in existence for some time. Finally an explosion occurs, usually about the fourth year in elementary school. Little is done about it and the individual goes from bad to worse—each subsequent experience aggravating the already aggravated situation. Any number of initiating factors may

exist, but on the whole most of these children have grown up like the family cat—sleep by day, roam the streets, frequent the hang-outs by night. Regardless of the type of home, type of community, that situation exists. They have never been integrated into a home nor trained to responsibility. They have no tasks or chores which are theirs to do. They have been left to grow by themselves—and grow in rebellion. If there is control, it is nagging and over-protective which encourages rebellion.

Parents do play a large part in juvenile delinquency through errors of omission and commission. The parents who neglect to integrate their children in the family, fail to give them responsibilities, fail to give approbation for work well done, fail to give the companionship children crave are creating delinquents. Also, parents who regard their children's peccadillos as "cute," who constantly defend them whether right or wrong, who call down complainants and build the "I am always right" attitude; they, too, are creating juvenile delinquents. So, too, are parents who demand more of their children than their children can produce—"only 90 per cent! Next time make it 100 per cent or you will be punished."

To work with things or people is to love and respect them. That also is the basis of gang loyalty. The young people have learned to love and respect the *wrong* people by working with them, for "misery loves company" and "birds of a feather flock together." Our communities do not harness the potential power of the adolescent; hence, the young people feel no tie between themselves, their home, their community, their church, their school. Thousands have never been inside a church and are antagonistic to it because of what they hear from others about what church means. Through an *extracurricular* program designed to build and reconstruct personality, school, church and community must create an opportunity for these young people to gain experience in working with the right people and thus creating the right kind of loyalty. A fraternity group at a Michigan college made it its business to have as house guests, every Friday night, a group of delinquents committed to the state reformatory. There was dinner at the house, followed by games in which fraternity members and young people were paired off—bridge, pool, anagrams, *etc.*—to become acquainted. Then followed a "song fest" and "bull session," after which the group adjourned to the college gym to witness a basketball game between college teams. The result was a marked change in the youngsters as attested by the authorities at the reformatory.

What the "daffy delinquents" need is a "regular fellow" to whom they may attach themselves. If as potential "delinquents" they have such a person to begin with, they do not become delinquents; and if delinquents have such a person before it is too late, their delinquency ebbs. Only when every contact with others results in the same rejection does the delinquent remain "daffy." The trouble is that few want to give the time required to break down the barrier between the real world and the delinquent world. Our solutions all try to secure a change in too short a time. "Slow but sure the watchword as we climb the hill."

The Weekly News Bulletin

O. C. WEST

BULLETINS have become an effective means of unifying pupils and teachers at Hinsdale Township High School, Hinsdale, Illinois. Instituted by Principal O. C. West in 1945, when the building then in use was literally bursting its seams with 1,700 pupils and teachers occupying space originally planned for half that number, this weekly news bulletin, known as the *Hinsdale Township High-School Bulletin*, became an effective classroom device. Now that the high school has been moved to a new building housing approximately 1,100 and soon to have an addition to accommodate 700 more, the *Bulletin* has continued to be a unifying aid.

Although it is a regular class period, the sixth period each day (12:52-1:55 P.M., four minutes longer than any other period) is designated as home-room period. At the beginning of the period each Monday, the *Bulletin* for the entire week is read and explained to the pupils by the teacher in charge of each class. It gives in compact form as complete a conception as possible of activities and school events for the week, meritorious achievement by pupils, "lost and found" information, honor roll summaries; and student council, class, and club activities are presented.

The format is usually about six pages, mimeographed on standard paper (8½ by 11 inches). The last page is an activity calendar outlined for each day of the week. Printed on paper of a color different from the other pages, the last page makes a convenient reference which may be detached from the rest of the stapled *Bulletin* and displayed on the bulletin board of the classroom.

Information is supplied for each *Bulletin* by the sponsors of activities, counselors, guidance and testing directors, teachers, and administrative personnel; and the whole is edited by the principal. A mimeographed release form is provided teachers and sponsors for handing in *Bulletin* information each Friday. The completed *Bulletin* is in the hands of each teacher before the fourth period each Monday.

The *Hinsdale Township High School Bulletin* distributes the news and gives both pupils and teachers a definite schedule with visual evidence of the plans for the week. A collection of the *Bulletins* for any given year gives a good picture of the school as a working unit. Because the school has an Electric School Console, it is possible to make "spot" news announcements as needed; but it is the aim of both teachers and administrators to regulate its use to prevent its becoming an annoying interruption in the classroom. For this reason, such announcements are

O. C. West is Principal of the Hinsdale Township High School, Hinsdale, Illinois.

usually made during the sixth period also, in keeping with the plan of having a particular time scheduled daily for announcements.

As used at Hinsdale, the *Bulletin* has brought teachers into closer contact with one another by providing accurate information about current activities. As an ultimate result, professional co-operation and *esprit de corps* have been encouraged. Following is a reproduction of the April 19-24, 1954, issue.

SCHOLARSHIP RECOGNITION PLAN: Preliminary tests in nineteen academic subjects are now available for use by subject-teachers before May 1. Teachers will nominate not more than twenty-five students in a subject. The top ten in each subject will in turn take the final test the second week in May. Final winners will be given suitable recognition and appropriate awards at an assembly sometime the latter part of May. A student may take two or more preliminary tests but may not take more than two final tests. Preliminary tests are to be scheduled this week or next at the discretion of the subject-teachers involved. Final tests will all be administered on May 12, 7th period, cafeteria. Students taking a second final test will begin that test as soon as the first is finished. *Preliminary tests in Algebra I, Plane Geometry, and Intermediate Algebra have been scheduled for Friday, April 23, at 3:05 P.M. *The Scholarship Recognition Plan was explained in detail in the last issue (April 9) of *High Times*. Students interested in participating in this program should discuss the details with their subject-teachers. Students must be enrolled now in the subjects in which they participate. *The plan as organized now is an attempt to recognize and reward outstanding scholarship in academic subjects. The results will be evaluated at the end of the year.

STUDENT COUNCIL VARIETY SHOW TRYOUTS: All acts for the Variety Show are requested to try out in the chorus room on Tuesday and Wednesday, April 20, 21. No one will be admitted to the tryouts except the student council board members and those in the acts. It will be announced at the Tuesday tryout whether all acts are to repeat on Wednesday.

VARIETY SHOW BLANKS: All the talent in Hinsdale Township is not advertising itself, for only a few entry blanks have been submitted. Get yours today in Room 119 from Gretchen Ahrens or Miss Hadish.

STUDENT COUNCIL BOARD MEETING: All members of the old and new boards will meet at 3:05 P.M. in Room 121 on Monday.

STATE STUDENT COUNCIL CONVENTION: Once more Hinsdale is participating in the state meeting to be held at the Morrison Hotel, Friday and Saturday, April 22, 23. We wish all Hinsdale Township students could attend. But we will be ably represented by Steve Yeretsky, Don Campbell, John Mathias, and Barbara Sampson whom we are running for the office of state treasurer. Here's luck to you, Barbara! John Mathias has been asked to give the invocation at the banquet Friday evening. Reports from delegates will be given Hinsdale Township students through a representative assembly meeting next week.

MEETING OF EIGHTH GRADE PARENTS: Tuesday evening, April 20, at 8:00 P.M. the parents of the eighth-grade students from Central, Gower, Holy Trinity, Bethel Lutheran, Zion Lutheran, Maercker, and Marion Hills schools will be guests of the high-school PTA. Ruby Bowling and a committee of students will assist with the program.

G.R. BAZAAR: The G.R. Bazaar is less than a month away, and there is still much work to be done on the booths. On Tuesday, the Sewing Booth will meet in the home economics kitchen and the Knitting Booth will meet in the home economics room. Anyone who can knit is urged to come help at the Knitting Booth. The meeting won't be long. On Wednesday, the Flower Booth meets in 208 and the Arts and Crafts Booth in the art room. We want to finish the work on these booths as soon as possible, so come to the meetings and help make the G.R. Bazaar a success.

G.R. NARRATOR TRYOUTS: Narrator tryouts for the G.R. Style Show will be held on Tuesday, April 20. All of those who have signed up for these tryouts should come to Room 204, at 3:05 P.M. on Tuesday.

SENIORS: College representatives will be here to represent the following colleges: Valparaiso on April 20; Lyons Township Junior College on April 28. See your counselor for an appointment with the representative.

SENIOR GIRLS VOCATIONAL BOARD—will meet Wednesday, April 21, at 3:05 in Room 109.

HIGH TIMES—assignments will be posted tomorrow and are due a week from Wednesday. *High Times* reporters and editors meet Wednesday. Photographs for page 2 are due this week. Art work for page 2 also due.

SUMMER TYPING: Attention everyone who wants to take summer typing. If you would like to learn to type this summer, register this week with Mrs. Lindon in Room 211. Don't delay; you might not get in a class if you don't hurry.

PLACEMENT SERVICE: Jobs for the summer- and part-time jobs are being reported. Have you registered at the Placement Service with Mrs. Lindon? If not, do it now if you want a part-time or summer job.

ADVANCED MATH CLUB—meeting Wednesday at 3:05 P.M. in Room 108. Topics for the day: computations on a Chinese Abacus, perusal of some 19th century math books, and miscellaneous mathematical mysteries.

MATHEMATICS SCHOLARSHIP TESTS: The preliminary tests in scholarship in mathematics will be given on Friday at 3:05 as follows: algebra I—Room 107; plane geometry—Room 109; intermediate algebra—Room 108.

CLASSES IN LIBRARY: Monday, April 19—Periods 2 and 3—Miss Warne; Wednesday, April 21—Periods 3, 4, 6—Miss Cline; Thursday, April 22—Periods 3, 4, 6—Miss Cline. Study Hall students not restricted.

HOME ECONOMICS CLUB—will hold its regular meeting on Thursday, April 22, at 3:05 P.M. in the home economics room. Mrs. Suckow will give a demonstration on the making of spring hats.

WASHINGTON TRIP: One more Washington trip is over, and it will live for a long time in the memories and photographs of the sixty-three students who made the tour. Everything—the weather (it was 85 degrees in Virginia), the people we met, and the trippers themselves—combined to make the perfect trip. We couldn't have had better chaperones than Mr. and Mrs. Griep. The agents for the railroad, the steamer line, the hotel, and the sightseeing companies were unanimous in their praise of the group's ability to have a really good time without being in any way unpleasant to anyone. If you had been with us, you would have been as proud as I was to have them represent H.T.H.S. Oh, yes—we had fun. For further details—consult one of the sixty-three.

FOUND: Watch (ladies) found—inquire in the office.

JUNIOR CLASS PARTY:

WHAT—The Junior Class Party

WHEN—Saturday, April 24—7:30-11:00 P.M.

WHERE—Circus grounds (H.T. cafeteria)

Tickets for this gala affair can be bought in 4th period lunch from Dick Purcell and Jim O'Brien and in 5th period lunch from Dick Bresnahan and Rob Mathias for 25c.

Circus acts of all kinds are needed to make the party a success. Anyone who would like to be in a skit must come to the Visual Aids Room at 3:05 P.M. on Tuesday, April 20.

We need 4 or 5 clowns, a barker (MC), circus freaks, and people to run the games.

Please see Lynne Brouwer if you can bring popcorn balls. Don't forget to come to the Circus this Saturday from 7:30 to 11:00 P.M.

JUNIOR CLASS PARTY DECORATIONS: Decorations for the Junior Class Party will be made at Pat Hilton's house—22 N. Washington Street—just across from the Hinsdale Library.

STUDENT COUNCIL EASTER DRIVE: A check for \$93.50 was sent to the Society for Crippled Children and Adults as H.T.H.'s donation to the Easter drive.

ROMAN BANQUET: The annual Roman Banquet will be held Friday evening at 6:00 P.M. in the cafeteria. Toga clad patricians (2nd- and 3rd-year students) will recline on couches and be served by many slaves (1st-year students). A procession of slaves will follow the bearers of the roasted wild boar, which will be brought in as the main dish, to be eaten with fingers—not forks—as the Romans did. After the banquet the guests will be regaled with a program of skits and dances. Tickets are \$1 and should be purchased at once by Latin students.

PEP CLUB NEWS: In view of making plans for the fall of 1954-55, all H. T. students should know that the present Girls' Pep Club will finish out the year's work in its present organization. According to recent reorganization action, it is to be known as the "Pep Club" with both boys and girls as members. We'll keep you informed about the process of organization, which will be in the hands of both boys and girls. Sponsors will be a man and a woman.

PEP CLUB: There will be a Pep Club board meeting Thursday in Room 216 at 3:10 P.M.

G.A.A.: There will be a G.A.A. board meeting Thursday, April 22, at 3:10 P.M. in Room 121.

GIRLS' VOLLEYBALL TEAM CAPTAINS: There will be a meeting of Girls' Volleyball team captains at 3:05 P.M. in the girls' gym office, Monday, April 19.

FACULTY PROFESSIONAL MEETING—Monday, April 19, 3:15 P.M. in the Community Room.

CURRICULUM PLANNING COMMITTEE—Thursday, April 22, at 3:30 P.M. in Junior High library.

HIGH SCHOOL PTA—Tuesday, April 27. Speaker: Dr. C. E. Spearman, Superintendent.

FOX VALLEY MUSIC FESTIVAL: Sunday and Monday, April 25 and 26. Our music department is preparing for the big event of the year. About 100 students will leave at noon on Monday, April 26, for St. Charles where the 900-voice choir, 150-piece orchestra, and 150-piece band will perform at 8 P.M. in the high school. Tickets are 85c and Hinsdale should be well represented. In preparation for the above, girls of the chorus will rehearse Tuesday and Wednesday this week at 3:00 P.M.

NEXT ASSEMBLY: Glenbard Exchange Assembly here, Thursday, April 29, 9:15 A.M. Omit 3rd period.

BASEBALL RESULTS: Hinsdale Varsity 9—Lagrange Varsity 8. Arlington Hghts. vars. 3—Hinsdale vars. 2 in 11 innings. Jack Seul pitched a no-run, no-hit game, Friday, April 16, at Hinsdale to beat R-B, 4-0. Coming—York Vars. vs. H.T. Vars. here, April 19.

H.T.H.S. WEEKLY CALENDAR SUMMARY

April 19-24, 1954

MONDAY	—6th —Read <i>Bulletin</i> carefully	
April 19	—3:05—S.C. Board—121	Girls' Volleyball Captains—Gym Office
	3:15—Faculty Professional Meeting—Community Room	
	7:30—Mathematics report to Board of Education—Community Room	
TUESDAY	—6th —ESC—Review <i>Bulletin</i> carefully	
April 20	—3:05—Variety Show tryouts—224	G.R. Narrator tryouts—204
	3:05—G.R. Sewing Booth—123	G.R. Knitting Booth—122

	3:05—Register for summer typing—211	
	3:05—Junior Class party skits—220	
	7:30—Parents of 8th graders—Community Room	
WEDNESDAY	—6th —ESC— <i>Bulletin</i>	
April 21	—3:05—Variety Show tryouts—224	
	3:05—G.R. Flower Booth—208	G.R. Arts & Crafts—221
	3:05—Senior Girls' Vocational Board—109	
	3:05— <i>High Times</i> —reporters and editors—215	
	3:05—Summer Typing—211	Adv. Math Club—108
	7:30—Boosters' Club—121	Faculty Wives—Community Room
THURSDAY	—6th —ESC— <i>Bulletin</i>	
April 22	—3:05—Summer Typing—211	Register for a job—211
	3:05—Home Ec. Club—122	
	3:10—G.R. Board—118	Pep Club Board—216
	3:10—G.A.A. Board—121	
	3:30—Planning Committee—Jr. High Library	
FRIDAY	—6th —ESC— <i>Bulletin</i> finale	
April 23	—3:00— <i>Bulletin</i> notices—eligibility	
	3:05—Mathematics Preliminary Scholarship Tests—Alg. I—107.	
	Plane Geometry—109. Intermediate Algebra—109.	
	6:00—Roman Banquet—Cafeteria	
SATURDAY	—7:30-11:00 P.M.—Junior Class Party	
April 24	(Open only to members of the Junior Class)	

TRACK RESULTS: Hinsdale track team placed second among 8 teams in the R-B Relays last Thursday in spite of vacation. Some boys were on the Washington trip and others were out of town. Morton was the winner 99.7 points. Hinsdale with 74.2 points placed ahead of Arlington Heights, Downers Grove, Palatine, Leyden, Wheaton, and R-B. Other scores since the last *Bulletin*: Hinsdale Vars. 46—East Aurora 72; Hinsdale Vars. 47—Elgin 71; Hinsdale Frosh-Soph 42—East Aurora 76; Hinsdale Frosh-Soph 49—Elgin 69.

Track Schedule this week: Tuesday—Dual meet at Glenbard—bus leaves at 3:10 (dress here). Saturday—Palatine Relays at Palatine. An all-day meet.

Remember—the Hinsdale Relays a week from Saturday on May 1. We need about 25 boys as hurdle boys and helpers. If you want a job, see Coach McCarthy. We need about 35 men to run this meet, so most of the faculty will be asked to help. We also plan to have queens preside. Admission will be charged. Activity tickets will not be honored at this meet.

DO YOU LIKE CARTOONS?

MANY high-school principals use cartoons on their bulletin boards to attract, amuse, and instruct the pupils in their school. Teachers have learned to collect appropriate cartoons for their classrooms because of the interest obtained from pupils.

Your business teachers will find much to laugh about and many teaching values in these twelve sets of cartoons. They may be obtained from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington 6, D. C., for \$2.00 for a set. Each set is composed of twelve pictures.

Multiple-Period Classes in Wisconsin

EDWARD A. KRUG, CLIFFORD S. LIDDLE
and QUENTIN F. SCHENK

CURRICULUM improvement on a state-wide basis includes the participation of a number of agencies and groups, among which are the state teacher-education institutions. In Wisconsin, staff members of the state colleges and the university have served actively on curriculum committees sponsored by the State Department of Public Instruction. In addition to such activities, however, faculty members of these institutions have also participated through the carrying on of research projects which contribute directly or indirectly to state-wide curriculum improvement.

One research project, among several of this type carried on at the University of Wisconsin, was an inquiry into multiple-period class organization in the high schools of the state. The term "multiple-period" is used to mean a class meeting two or more class periods daily, which replaces or combines two or more general education subjects, such as English, social studies, mathematics, and science, and is taught either by one teacher or by a team of teachers. The writers believed that a study of this kind could make two possible contributions to curriculum improvement: (1) by helping to clarify the reasons or the philosophy which motivated the initiation of such classes; and (2) by making available information about the specific patterns and practices prevailing in such classes. The project was initiated by the writers and was given official encouragement by the university in the form of a grant from the research funds of the graduate school.

Information was gathered through the following procedures:

1. An initial post-card survey which located 44 junior and senior high schools with multiple-period organization of the kind defined in the study¹
2. A visit to each school by one of the writers for the purpose of interviewing the administration personnel on the purposes and practices in the multiple-period organization on an all-school basis
3. Interviews with 41 teachers in 15 of the schools to explore the viewpoints and reactions of people carrying on the work in the classroom setting
4. The gathering of written comments about the multiple-period organization from students in 11 classes distributed over 5 of the schools

¹ Returns from the post-card survey were secured from 463 (ninety per cent) of the 513 Wisconsin high schools operating in 1950-51.

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One of the major questions raised in the interviews with administrators was that of the philosophy or reasons for inaugurating multiple-period classes. This was felt to be a fundamental problem, since although a multiple-period class may be used for a core philosophy, it may also be used in other curriculum patterns and for other reasons. Since most schools had several reasons for starting their programs, administrators were asked to make some judgments concerning the relative importance of these reasons.

Among other questions raised with administrators in these interviews were the following: On what grade levels are the multiple-period classes used? How many students, classes and teachers are working in the multiple-period program? What are the classes named? What subjects are replaced, if any? Are the classes required or elective? How was the program started? How in general is the program regarded by teachers and students? What evaluation activities are carried on? The writers assumed that responses to these questions would help to define more specifically the extent and character of multiple-period organization in Wisconsin high schools.

WHY AND HOW PROGRAMS WERE STARTED

In the 44 school programs studied, administrative leadership played a very important part in initiating multiple-period programs. In only 7 schools did the initiative appear to come from teachers.

In 12 schools the first reason for starting the multiple-period programs was to provide better transition of the students to the work of the junior high schools. The reduction of the daily pupil-teacher ratio both for teachers and pupils was given as the first reason in 9 schools, and this reason appears as one of the first three reasons in 21 of the schools. To provide for subject correlation or fusion appears as a first reason in 5 schools and as one of the first three reasons in 19 schools. Fourteen schools listed as one of the three reasons that of helping to meet needs of students through emphasis on personal problems and social developments. Improvement of teaching procedures was given among the three reasons in 8 schools, although no school gave it as a first reason.

PATTERNS OF ORGANIZATION

Multiple-period classes in the 44 schools were found from grades seven through twelve. Slightly more than half of these schools have confined their multiple-period work to the seventh and eighth grades. Twenty of the schools were experimenting with multiple-period classes at one grade level only. Five schools had introduced some multiple-period classes for all the grades in the school. In the 44 schools offering the multiple-period programs in 1950-51, there were 201 teachers working with 7,157 students in 271 sections. In 30 of the 44 schools the multiple-period classes were identified by the names of the combined subjects. The term "core" was used by 9 of the schools. Multiple-period work in many of the schools was identified with English and some

form of social studies. In half of the schools the students took one double-period combination taught by one teacher. In 26 of the schools the practice with regard to the assignment of students to multiple-period classes was to require all students in the grades for which multiple-period classes were offered to enroll in such classes. Some or all of the multiple-period classes in 10 of the schools were set up to meet the needs of students in certain ability classifications. The beginning dates of the various programs show a continuing and growing interest in multiple-period work in Wisconsin. Thirty-seven of the 44 programs had come into existence since the middle of the 1940's.

THE TEACHER IN THE MULTIPLE-PERIOD PROGRAM

Data were secured through individual interviews with 41 teachers engaged in multiple-period programs in 15 of the 44 schools. The 15 schools included 5 classified as small, 4 as medium, and 6 as large. The teachers were selected for these interviews by their own administrators who were requested specifically to select teachers representing varying degrees of interest or lack of interest in multiple-period work.

Thirty-three of the teachers had received their collegiate training in the secondary social studies areas, 7 in the elementary social studies field, and 1 in secondary science and mathematics. There was a wide variation both in the total number of years of teaching experience and in the years of experience with the multiple-period program. The size of the classes with which the 41 teachers worked ran from the smallest with 17 pupils to the largest with 34 pupils. The average size class consisted of 26 pupils.

The teachers interviewed saw value in multiple-period classes. They felt particularly that this organization helped to establish closer personal relations between students and teachers. In large and medium schools where impersonal relationships are more likely to prevail, this would seem to be an especially important result of the multiple-period program. Teachers in the small schools also stressed the role which such organization plays in helping the class to become more closely identified with the school-community relationship. There was some expression on the part of the teachers to the effect that they had not been helped to see clearly the basic objectives of multiple-period organization. This points to the need for in-service education opportunities which might be developed in local school systems and in teacher-education institutions.

THE STUDENT IN THE MULTIPLE-PERIOD CLASS

Two hundred thirty-nine students in 5 high schools were asked to express opinions on their multiple-period classes. Every one of the 239 students to whom the questionnaires were given was enrolled in only 1 multiple-period class and this was also the first experience for each of these students in such classes.

The general picture within the group of 239 students was one of approval for multiple-period class organization. Eighty-seven per cent of the students

included in the questionnaire study said that they liked the multiple-period classes in which they were enrolled. A smaller majority indicated that they liked their multiple-period class better than any other classes. Enthusiasm was reflected on the part of the majority of the students for what they were learning in their multiple-period classes. Most students felt they were learning something they could use every day. A slight majority expressed the opinion that they were working harder in their multiple-period classes than in other classes. Just over half of the students indicated that they believed that the parents looked with approval upon the multiple-period organization. Only about one fourth of the students made any statement about the opinions held by other teachers in their school concerning the multiple-period classes. Most of the students responding felt that their other teachers thought such classes were worth while. A slight majority felt that their classmates thought the multiple-period classes were worth while.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS AND NEEDS

In 14 cases evaluation programs specifically directed at the multiple-period programs were reported, while in 13 instances the evaluation programs were those employed in the over-all educational programs rather than specifically developed for the multiple-period programs. The absence of attention to evaluation was reported in 12 cases. In several instances administrators indicated marked concern about a need for development of substantial evaluation programs. Seventeen schools reported plans to continue the existing multiple-period programs, while 16 schools indicated intention of expanding the programs by adding additional sections within the grade levels where the program was in operation, experimenting with other subject combinations, or extending the program to other grades. Thirty schools identified problems related to their multiple-period programs. These were problems which were deemed of sufficient importance to merit special study and included improvement of evaluation procedures, the development of resource materials, techniques for developing and improving multiple-period classes, follow-up studies of graduates, techniques for improving staff curriculum planning, and techniques for improving teacher-parent co-operation.

As previously stated, many of the persons who were interviewed saw value in multiple-period classes. They pointed out, however, that change in classroom organization without a clear understanding of purpose on the part of those concerned would probably result in little actual improvement in the teaching-learning process. In fact, to some of the teachers interviewed it was merely a curricular organization imposed upon them, within which they proceeded as before. This points to the necessity that, if this structure is used, its purposes must be clearly understood.

Those who saw possibilities in the multiple-period structure that they had not seen in their previous types of class organization stated:

1. The multiple-period program helps improve teacher-pupil relationships.
2. It makes for greater flexibility of presentation of subject matter.
3. It makes possible improved school-community relationships.
4. If growth of students is the goal, the multiple-period class organization provides a better medium for "reaching the students."
5. The multiple-period structure provides more opportunity for students to organize their own materials and help develop the goals of the course.

Among other things, the reduction of the teacher-pupil ratio through multiple-period classes helps create a climate for the development of the above-stated values. Furthermore, if this class structure is used in the junior high school and these values are to be found in the teaching process, the multiple-period classroom organization can help provide more effective transition for students from the elementary to the senior high-school levels.

In all of this, it needs to be emphasized that this type of organization takes much more time than other types of class structures, if the above-stated goals are to be reached. The investigators have been impressed, however, by the seriousness with which school personnel have approached their responsibilities in multiple-period organization. They are most earnestly concerned with trying to find means of working *with* their students to improve the educational offerings of the school, and view the multiple-period organization as a step in this direction.

Those persons interviewed who did not approve of the multiple-period class organization point up the fact that, like any other system, it can be expected to do only that which it is designed to do. The reactions of these persons not approving the multiple-period organization class should be given careful consideration. Personnel in every school that contemplates initiating a plan such as this should also consider its potentialities and weaknesses in the light of its specific local needs. If its use is feasible, careful adaptation to the local situation must be made if any degree of success in its use is to be found.

In the year following the completion of the study, 30 more schools in Wisconsin introduced the multiple-period structure in their classrooms. This at least indicates a maintenance of interest in the plan, and is hopefully a recognition of possibilities in it for better meeting the educational needs of students in these schools.

If this study is able to shed some light on this involved and somewhat confused subject by the findings which are stated in it, the investigators will count their efforts worth while. It is hoped that the study raises questions which school personnel will need to answer before they can be satisfied with the worth of the plan, rather than looking to it automatically as an answer to age-old problems.

If it does, then this study will help identify a possible function of university research in state-wide curriculum planning. Studies such as this may then help give our youth tools which will enable them to contribute toward the betterment of the communities in which they live.

Educational Opportunities with the Class-Study Period

FLOYD E. WIEGAN
NORMAN DORSCHNER

IN 1949 the Brillion High School was faced with the common problem of an expanding school population with limited classroom facilities. Various measures were presented and discussed with a view to a possible solution. The efficiency of the study hall was one of the problems that the faculty felt needed improvement.

A regular schedule of faculty meetings for school and self-improvement are held throughout the year. These planned programs of meetings are held the week prior to the beginning of the school term, the week after the close of school, as well as on the first and third Mondays after school of each month. The faculty meetings take precedence over any other school activity or function. At these meetings teachers expressed dissatisfaction with the study habits of students in study halls, the availability of necessary classrooms, school time for extracurricular activities, teacher contacts with the parents, and the program of classes in general.

General dissatisfaction was expressed over the study hall problem. It was felt that the student did not use the period to the best advantage and that he received little or no help in directed study. It was generally agreed that the student prepared for his immediate needs with the idea of leaving the additional assignments for some other period. As the school day progressed each succeeding study room showed a greater decrease in efficiency, with most of the problems developing during the last periods of the day. Teachers engaged in study hall supervision were withdrawn from a possible class assignment for which they were primarily trained. Each study or home room represented a room that could have been used for an additional class. Great concern was expressed in the inability of the teachers to have the personal contact with the student that they desired, and of giving them aid in directed study outside of the regular classroom. Many students were unable to seek aid after school in their assignments because of bus transportation, work, and other reasons. A survey showed that teachers had students under their supervision in the study halls who were not enrolled in their classes. It is impossible for each teacher to have a knowledge of the study assignment of each student

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and to evaluate the ability and needs of a student when the contact is only one of maintaining study hall rules.

Faculty discussion brought out the idea that extracurricular activities should be encouraged and have a definite place in the school program, but not as a displacement or substitute for regular curricular classes. It was suggested that a place be made in the regular daily school program for every student to have an equal opportunity for participation in and observance of extracurricular activities, with as little interference with regular classes as it was humanly possible.

Committees were appointed to study the various phases of other high-school programs in the state and to recommend improvements of the school program. Approximately seventy school programs of the state were investigated. From this study it was decided that the conventional program contained defects that needed adjustments or correction.

Considerable outside interest has been shown in the Brillion "class-study" period program. High-school principals, city and county superintendents, and groups of teachers representing their school systems have been frequent visitors throughout the last school year to observe the system in actual operation. Requests for information have come from Hawaii, Guam, the armed forces, and from practically every state in the Union. From these requests it has become apparent that other schools have had difficulty with their study halls. One of the number of typical letters is as follows, "Our study hall is a headache. What are you doing about yours?"

THE PLAN

This is what we are doing about it: The study hall was divided into classrooms so that an expanded school enrollment could be met without the lowering of curriculum standards. After some experimentation we "tailored" a plan to fit our local situation. The present program represents a period of five years of research and study.

For the past two years the Brillion High School has been operating under their new "class-study" period system. It was with temerity that the new plan was first introduced, for it represented a complete break with the conventional study hall as followed by practically every school in the nation.

The committee presented a plan which was a radical departure from present methods. The chief details of the plan provided for:

1. No regularly assigned study periods
2. A "class-study" period of one hour and fifteen minutes
3. Each class to meet four times a week
4. A five-period day
5. A student weekly schedule of six subjects including five subjects and physical education; or four subjects, physical education, with a choice of music or athletics; or four subjects with music and athletics
6. An activity period of one hour and fifteen minutes each week

These ideas necessitated a convincing selling job to the faculty, the school board, and, finally, the student body. A great deal of skepticism as to the workability of the plan was at first encountered. The proposed new schedule was presented by the teachers to the students in their classes for study and suggestions. To eliminate any confusion the students were asked to indicate the year's activities on the following form.

	<i>Monday</i>	<i>Tuesday</i>	<i>Wednesday</i>	<i>Thursday</i>	<i>Friday</i>
8:20 — 9:30	6th period	1st Period	1st Period	1st Period	1st Period
9:32 — 10:47	2nd Period	6th Period	2nd Period	2nd Period	2nd Period
10:50 — 12:05	3rd Period	3rd Period	6th Period	3rd Period	3rd Period
1:00 — 2:15	4th Period	4th Period	4th Period	6th Period	4th Period
2:17 — 3:32	5th Period	5th Period	5th Period	5th Period	<i>Activity Period</i>

From the above diagram it became evident that the sixth period was a sliding period which was to begin on the first period of Monday, alternating one period later each day of the week through Thursday. Each student was now requested to write in the selected subjects for each period. The faculty was pleasantly surprised at the ease with which the students adapted themselves to the changed schedule, due in part, perhaps, to the simplicity of the diagram used as indicated by the example (on the next page) of a student's schedule whose interest was in both band and athletics.

On first observation of the program, it might appear that sufficient time is not devoted to each subject, since each class meets but four times a week. By making a more complete analysis of the program, one observes that each class has a total of five hours per week devoted entirely to subject development and study. With the present plan students study under instructor supervision in every assigned class. The study or home room, a place of many problems for the teacher and students, has now been converted into additional classrooms. The substitution of a class for each eliminated home room now represents a wider selection of school subjects for the student.

The new program demands a greater degree of teacher planning since all class participation and study is now accomplished within the period. Each teacher is practically unlimited in the methods used to achieve desired goals. New projects, of interest to the students, may be suggested as a result of the close co-operation between the teacher and student. Each student now receives aid in class participation directly from the teacher conducting the class, and individual progress may be evaluated. The student is given an opportunity for

	<i>Monday</i>	<i>Tuesday</i>	<i>Wednesday</i>	<i>Thursday</i>	<i>Friday</i>
8:20 — 9:30	6th Period <i>Band</i>	1st Period <i>Agriculture</i>	1st Period <i>Agriculture</i>	1st Period <i>Agriculture</i>	1st Period <i>Agriculture</i>
9:32 — 10:47	2nd Period <i>Social Problems</i>	6th Period <i>Band</i>	2nd Period <i>Social Problems</i>	2nd Period <i>Social Problems</i>	2nd Period <i>Social Problems</i>
10:50 — 12:05	3rd Period <i>English</i>	3rd Period <i>English</i>	6th Period <i>Band</i>	3rd Period <i>English</i>	3rd Period <i>English</i>
1:00 — 2:15	4th Period <i>Physics</i>	4th Period <i>Physics</i>	4th Period <i>Physics</i>	6th Period <i>Band</i>	4th Period <i>Physics</i>
2:17 — 3:32	5th Period <i>Athletics</i>	5th Period <i>Athletics</i>	5th Period <i>Athletics</i>	5th Period <i>Athletics</i>	<i>Activity Period</i>

individual achievement not realized under the old system. The slow learner may receive additional help from the teacher, and the better students can be challenged to greater effort. Since the plan emphasizes and encourages individual achievement, under continued teacher guidance and observation, there is little incentive or opportunity for a student to copy another's work.

Teachers have discovered that the new program provides many advantages. Reverting again to further analysis of the program, it can be observed that it provides a great degree of flexibility. The activity period, usually held on the last period on Friday, may be substituted or exchanged for any fifth or sixth period class help during the week. This provides for an opportunity to plan for speakers, lyceum programs, or any other school function on practically any day of the week without a loss of time to any class. It is not advisable to substitute the activity period for any other period than the fifth or sixth, for to do so would mean that the substituted class would meet twice that day. Another development may be secured by substituting the activity period for

a class period and combining it with a regular period, whereby a total of two and a half hours may be made available for a field trip, with again no loss of time to any other class. The longer periods permit more sustained time devoted to project work in such subjects as agriculture, art, home economics, science, and shop. The extended period is especially suited for the completion of laboratory experiments, project assignments in shop and home economics, and provides more time for showers and actual activity in physical education. Teachers now have time to preview educational movies or filmstrips, present the material to the class, and make a complete review of the subject within the time limits of the period.

Modifications in the use of the library have come into existence under the "class-study" program. Extensive use has been replaced by intensive use through the development of classroom libraries. Each classroom library is made up not only of texts and library books, but also of magazines pertaining to the subject which is taught in that classroom. Teachers have discovered an increased use of the library in the classroom, to do reference reading as a part of their regular classroom assignment, because of the additional encouragement received under directed study and guidance. When the need develops, the entire class may make use of the facilities of the central library upon a previous request by the classroom teacher. This method especially lends itself to English teachers who desire to encourage students in the selection and use of various types of recreational reading. Students avail themselves of additional recreational reading or browsing in the central library before the start of school, during the noon hour, and during the activity period. The general tendency of the students under the new system is to make use of, rather than abuse, the library facilities.

The weekly activity period of one hour and fifteen minutes gives more opportunity for the students to observe and to participate in additional activities. All classes and organizations are scheduled to meet for fifteen minutes at least once every three weeks, the fourth week being devoted solely to some special function. Meetings containing the largest groups are always held at the beginning of the activity period of each week. All classes meet the first week, Future Farmers and Future Homemakers the second week, and the Girls' Athletic Association and Letterman's Club during the third week. Meetings of organizations containing smaller groups are arranged throughout the three weeks' period. The time limit of meetings may be increased or additional meetings may be scheduled upon the request of each individual organization. The gymnasium and athletic field is used as a clearing house for those students not participating in activities. There such activities as dancing, intramural sports, "B" team football, freshman basketball, "B" team baseball, and music programs are conducted for student participation and observation. Small group activities such as forensics, dramatics, annual, newspaper, and vocal and instrumental meetings are scheduled to run simultaneously with the gymnasium

activities as the need rises. The social activities in the gymnasium give all students in the gymnasium a period of relaxation and an opportunity to meet socially during the regular school day under teacher supervision. Special programs for the entire student body consist of lyceum numbers, student-directed plays, College Day, movies, and speakers. Time is also available for guidance and program conferences.

The problem of greater teacher contact with the parents was solved by parent-teacher conferences. The high school utilized the experiences gained by the grade-school teachers, who had experimented with this type of procedure for a number of years. Each teacher is assigned eighteen to twenty students to whom the teacher becomes a personal and guidance adviser. Every effort is made to make teacher-student assignment on the basis of major fields of study and common interests. Personal interviews, guidance surveys, and student evaluation are discussed between the adviser and students at meetings scheduled at regular intervals during activity periods. Grades earned by the student are reported to the individual adviser on forms especially prepared for this purpose. These forms, including a personality and progress survey, are evaluated by the adviser. Parent-teacher meetings are scheduled at the mid-term of each semester for the grade school and the high school. On these two days, students are dismissed from school. A selected few remain to direct the parents to the rooms of the advisers. Approximately ninety-eight per cent of the parents attended each of the two conferences this year.

Teachers, students, and parents are enthusiastic over the new program and would not desire to return to the former program. In evaluating the "class-study" program, approximately ninety-one per cent of the parents indicated that their children received greater benefits under the new system. Flexibility, equality of opportunity, individual attention, personal contact, less interference with classes, and greater efficiency in study are some of the advantages of the adopted "class-study" program. After two years of use we feel the change was justified and that a distinct improvement has been made in meeting the needs of the school, students, and community. It is hoped that other schools will be able to benefit from these experiences. Additional information will be furnished to interested schools, and visitors are always welcome.

Expenses of High School Seniors

HAROLD H. PUNKE

ALTHOUGH more extensive provision is made in the United States than in most countries for free public education, there are still several important items of expense which parents must pay. One group of such items, for high-school seniors, relates to graduation and other special occasions. This article deals primarily with items of graduation expense, as reported by seniors in twenty-six small to medium-sized white public schools in North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Tennessee. The data were supplied by seniors on anonymous questionnaires, in May of 1952, and constitute part of a larger study in which 1,045 seniors supplied data.

Cost of graduation pictures, invitations, and banquets—Table I shows expense for three typical items of graduation expense. Cols. 2 to 6 show the distribution of 886 seniors according to sex, place of residence, and amount spent for graduation pictures. The 886 who reported picture expense constitute approximately 85 per cent of the 1,045 seniors mentioned earlier. A somewhat higher percentage of girls than of boys reported expenses for this item, and a somewhat higher percentage of town than of farm seniors so reported. However, in each student grouping, the amount spent by 65 per cent or more of the students did not exceed \$5 each, although some students in each group spent several times this amount. Girls somewhat more than boys seem to have a social orientation which expresses itself in photographs for distribution to friends.

Col. 11 shows the 965 or approximately 92 per cent of the 1,045 seniors reported expense for graduation invitations: Among farm youth only 82 per cent of the boys in comparison with 96 per cent of the girls reported invitation expense. The sex difference among town seniors was small. Possibly farm girls sense isolation somewhat more than the other groups, particularly farm boys, and look upon invitations for kinfolk and friends to attend their graduation as a means of reducing the isolation. Girls typically spent somewhat more for invitations than boys. Thus expenditures of 54.4 per cent of the town boys and 50.0 per cent of the farm boys did not exceed \$7.50 each, whereas the percentages of town and farm girls who fell in these low-expenditure categories were only 41.3 and 33.4, respectively. After the \$10 level was reached, expenditures seemed to drop off sharply, although a substantial percentage of girls reported invitation expense of over \$15.

Col. 16 shows that the 514 seniors who reported expense for special banquets constitute 49 per cent of the 1,045 seniors. This relatively small percentage,

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Table I.—Cost of Graduation Pictures, Invitations, and Banquets, by Sex and Residence of Pupil and by Amount Paid

Pupils reporting, and distribution by amount paid	Pictures						Invitations						Banquets					
	Boys			Girls			Boys			Girls			Boys			Girls		
	Town	Farm		Town	Farm		Town	Farm		Town	Farm		Town	Farm		Town	Farm	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16			
1. Total No. reporting	339	119	414	175	1045	339	119	414	175	1045	339	119	414	175	1045			
No. participating	285	96	360	145	886	320	98	382	165	965	188	54	205	67	514			
% participating ¹	84	80	87	84	85	95	82	92	96	92	56	45	49	39	49			
2. %age distribution of pupils reporting, by amount paid ²																		
\$0.00—\$2.50	42.5	43.8	36.9	42.7	40.4	5.6	4.1	3.1	2.4	3.9	28.7	22.2	34.6	35.8	31.3			
2.51—5.00	27.0	29.2	28.1	32.4	28.5	30.0	23.5	17.5	14.0	21.6	29.8	27.8	24.9	19.4	26.3			
5.01—7.50	10.5	10.4	13.6	14.5	12.4	18.8	22.4	20.9	17.0	19.7	2.1	3.7	4.9	6.0	3.9			
7.51—10.00	9.5	7.3	13.6	6.9	10.5	20.6	31.5	25.7	32.1	21.6	14.4	16.7	6.5	4.5	10.1			
10.01—12.50	3.5	2.1	2.5	0.0	2.4	8.1	3.1	8.7	9.7	8.1	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.5	0.6			
12.51—15.00	4.2	1.0	1.4	1.4	2.3	9.4	11.3	11.2	11.5	10.7	6.4	9.2	2.9	3.0	4.9			
Over 15.00	2.8	6.2	3.9	2.1	3.5	7.5	4.1	13.1	15.3	10.4	18.6	20.4	25.4	29.8	22.9			
Totals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			

¹ There were 1,035 seniors participating in the "entire study." The 285 town boys noted in col. 2 constitute 94% of all town boys among the 1,035 students.

² The percentages in Section 2 of the table are figured on the number of pupils in the particular category who reported. Thus the 42.5 in col. 2 means that 42.5% of the 285 farm boys paid from \$0.00 to \$2.50 for graduation pictures. The other data in Table I, and the data in subsequent tables, are to be read as indicated.

in comparison with the percentages reporting expense for the two preceding items, may be related to a practice whereby juniors entertain seniors at a junior-senior banquet.

Substantially larger percentages of girls than of boys reported banquet expense in the two extreme expenditure categories—\$2.50 or less, and over \$15. The smaller percentage of boys than of girls in the "\$2.50 or less" category may mean that several boys take dates on banquet occasions, thus boosting their expense into higher categories. Part of the high percentage of girls in the "over \$15" category might be associated with expense for teas, parties, "showers," *etc.*, which boys do not ordinarily attend. The data for boys in the \$7.51-\$10

Table II.—Expense for Special Graduation Clothes, by Sex and Residence of Pupil and by Amount Spent

Pupils reporting, and distribution by amount spent	Boys		Girls		Both Sexes, Town and Farm
	Town	Farm	Town	Farm	
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Total No. reporting	339	119	414	173	1045
No. participating	294	102	399	160	955
% participating	87	85	96	93	91
2. %age distribution of pu- pils reporting, by amount spent					
\$0.00-\$7.50	67.3	54.9	44.9	42.5	52.4
7.51-15.00	5.8	3.9	11.0	20.0	10.2
15.01-22.50	3.4	4.9	10.5	11.8	8.0
22.51-30.00	2.7	3.9	12.8	13.1	8.8
30.01-37.50	2.4	3.9	3.5	1.9	2.9
37.51-42.50	2.0	7.9	2.5	1.3	2.7
42.51-50.00	6.5	5.9	7.3	3.8	6.3
Over 50.00	9.9	14.7	7.3	5.6	8.7
Totals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

expense category suggest that to some extent boys "estimated" their expense in round numbers, *i. e.*, \$10. The range of expense among the 514 seniors seems important: for between one half and two thirds of the group, the expense did not exceed \$5, whereas for nearly one fourth it exceeded \$15.

Clothes for graduation and other special occasions—Tables II and III show expense for graduation clothes and for clothes considered necessary for other special occasions. Table II shows that 955 or 91 per cent of the 1,045 seniors reported the purchase of some kind of special clothing for graduation activities. A larger percentage of the girls than of the boys bought graduation clothes, although probably a good many senior girls normally made graduation garments from purchased materials. For some reason a high percentage (14.7%) of farm boys reported expenditures of over \$50 for graduation clothes. Possibly farm boys who are rather short on "dress up" clothes find high-school graduation a good occasion for persuading their parents to give them a good dress outfit.

However, an outstanding fact shown by the table is that over half (52.4%—col. 6) of the 955 seniors found their need for graduation clothing adequately met with the small expenditure of \$7.50.

Probably in some cases graduation from high school furnished the occasion for buying items which were otherwise needed, but no doubt in other cases, if there had been no graduation, the individual concerned would have got along without the clothing purchased and not have felt any marked wardrobe deficiency. The extent to which high schools use caps and gowns at graduation exercises, gratis to pupils or on rental, may affect the extent to which seniors spend money for graduation clothes.

Table III.—Cost of Clothes for Special Occasions Other than Graduation, by Sex and Residence of Pupil and by Amount Spent

Pupils reporting, and distribution by amount spent	Boys		Girls		Both Sexes, Town and Farm
	Town	Farm	Town	Farm	
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Total No. reporting	339	119	414	173	1045
No. participating	167	38	277	112	594
% participating	49	32	67	65	57
2. %age distribution of pupils reporting by amount spent					
\$0.00—\$10.00	26.3	26.3	14.5	15.2	18.7
10.01—20.00	11.4	21.1	17.0	23.2	16.8
20.01—30.00	17.3	10.5	21.7	18.7	19.2
30.01—40.00	7.8	13.2	7.6	7.1	7.9
40.01—50.00	15.0	23.7	15.2	20.5	16.7
50.01—60.00	4.2	2.6	2.8	2.7	3.4
60.01—70.00	2.4	0.0	1.8	1.8	1.7
70.01—80.00	4.2	0.0	2.8	1.8	2.9
80.01—90.00	0.6	0.0	1.5	0.9	1.0
90.01—100.00	4.8	2.6	8.6	2.7	6.0
Over \$100.00	6.0	0.0	6.5	5.4	5.7
Totals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Perhaps another factor bearing on expense for graduation clothes is the amount otherwise spent on clothes. Table III shows that 594 or 57 per cent of the 1,045 seniors bought clothes for special occasions other than graduation. The percentages were much higher among girls than among boys. In the case of farm youth, more than twice as high a percentage of the girls as of the boys reported expense for this item. However, the percentages of farm youth, both sexes, who spent over \$50 for the special clothes considered, was substantially smaller than the corresponding percentages of town youth. The difference is especially noticeable in the case of boys. Farm youth, especially boys, may in general be somewhat less dress-conscious than town youth, or may have fewer "special occasions" for which some particular type of clothing seems necessary.

However, it was observed in discussing Table II that a particularly high percentage of farm boys reported expenditures of over \$50 for graduation clothes. For farm boys, and perhaps others, the expense reported for graduation clothes and that reported for clothes needed on other special occasions should be considered jointly.

Cost of graduation jewelry—Table IV shows that 930 or 89 per cent of the 1,045 seniors reported expense for graduation jewelry, with somewhat higher percentages for girls than for boys. Column 6 indicates that the modal expenditure for the 930 seniors fell in the category \$17.51-20—but each of the two next higher categories included nearly as high a percentage of the 930 seniors. There were relatively few seniors (10.0% of the 930) who did not spend more than \$15 for graduation jewelry.

Table IV.—Cost of Graduation Jewelry, by Sex and Residence of Pupil and by Amount Paid for Jewelry

Pupils reporting, and distribution by amount paid	Boys		Girls		Both Sexes, Town and Farm
	Town	Farm	Town	Farm	
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Total No. reporting	339	119	414	173	1045
No. participating	288	101	376	165	930
% participating	85	84	91	90	89
2. %age distribution of pupils reporting, by amount paid					
\$0.00—\$10.00	1.0	0.0	2.9	0.0	1.5
10.01—12.50	0.3	3.0	4.8	4.8	3.2
12.51—15.00	2.8	3.0	7.5	6.1	5.3
15.01—17.50	3.8	4.9	9.8	11.5	7.7
17.51—20.00	17.4	17.8	31.9	27.9	25.2
20.01—22.50	21.9	16.8	21.3	15.8	20.0
22.51—25.00	38.2	31.7	13.0	21.8	24.4
25.01—27.50	8.0	11.9	4.3	6.1	6.6
27.51—30.00	5.2	7.9	3.5	4.8	4.7
Over 30.00	1.4	3.0	1.0	1.2	1.4
Totals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Although girls and women are usually thought to be more interested in jewelry than boys and men, Table IV shows that a substantially larger percentage of the boys than of the girls fell in the higher expenditure categories regarding graduation jewelry. Calculations from the table show that 52.8 per cent of the town boys and 54.5 per cent of the farm boys spent over \$22.50, whereas the corresponding figures for girls are 21.8 per cent and 33.9 per cent. Perhaps it is not the kind of jewelry that symbolizes high-school graduation which is of greatest interest to girls.

Diploma fees—It appears from Table V that 550 or 53 per cent of the 1,045 seniors reported paying a diploma fee. It seems reasonable to assume

that, where a school charges a diploma fee, the amount of the fee is the same for all graduates. Hence where percentage differences appear with respect to amounts paid, according to sex or place of residence, the differences are probably reflections of the different student groupings being made up in varying proportions of seniors from different schools.

The table shows that a larger per cent of farm than of town seniors paid a diploma fee. For town boys, among students reporting such a fee, the modal fee clearly falls in the category \$0.00-1.50, whereas for town girls there seem to be two modes—one of which falls in this category and one in the category \$2.51-3.50. Computations not included in the table show that the mode for all town seniors falls in the \$0.00-1.50 category, whereas for farm seniors it

Table V.—Diploma Fees Paid, by Sex and Residence of Pupil and by Amount of the Fee Paid

Pupils reporting, and distribution by amount paid	Boys		Girls		Both Sexes, Town and Farm
	Town	Farm	Town	Farm	
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Total No. reporting	339	119	414	173	1045
No. participating	161	66	206	117	550
% participating	48	55	40	68	53
2. %age distribution of pu- pils reporting, by amount paid					
\$0.00-\$1.50	30.4	16.7	33.5	29.9	29.8
1.51- 2.50	23.6	19.7	20.9	18.0	20.9
2.51- 3.50	24.8	46.9	34.5	41.0	34.6
3.51- 4.50	13.7	9.1	6.3	6.0	8.7
Over 4.50	7.5	7.6	4.8	5.1	6.0
Totals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

is in the \$2.51-3.50 category—as it is for the 550 seniors as a group. Perhaps the two seniors attended somewhat larger schools than the farm seniors, and the larger schools within the range studied may have had lower diploma fees.

The range in amount of diploma fee reported is of interest, although in only one seventh (14.7%) of the 550 cases did it exceed \$3.50.

Concluding notes—Preliminary tabulations were made by age for each of the sex and residence groups shown in Tables I-V. Although some age differences appeared, they were not great enough to justify an age breakdown in the tables of textual treatment.

A somewhat larger percentage of girls than of boys reported graduation expenditures for pictures, invitations, graduation and other special clothes, and graduation jewelry. In addition, the girls who reported expenditures for these items, on the whole, reported larger expenditures for them than boys reported. The differences are rather pronounced in regard to invitations and clothes, but less pronounced in regard to pictures. Per student, boys seem to spend more

on graduation jewelry than girls. No clear sex pattern is demonstrated in regard to banquet expense.

The graduation expenditure pattern noted suggests that graduation from high school may be a more important event in the lives of girls than in that of boys. The fact that a somewhat larger percentage of the graduates are girls than boys supports this observation, as does the fact that a smaller percentage of the girl graduates enter college than of the boy graduates. The tendency of girls to make better grades in high school than boys make is in keeping with the foregoing observations.

The data presented in this article should make it clear that expense connected with graduation and related high-school activities is likely to be substantial. While graduation pictures, invitations, clothes, jewelry, and similar items may seldom be "required" by school regulation, they are likely to be demanded by advertising and other social pressures which the individual graduate can in many instances resist only at the peril of his social status. The small number who resist is shown inversely by the large percentages who report expense for such items as pictures, invitations, clothes, *etc.* The tables show considerable range among seniors in expenditures for such items, although in each table the last category which indicates expenditures "over" a certain amount does not show how much over that amount the highest expenditure was. Hence the complete range is substantially larger than a casual reading of the tables might imply.

Where there are several different types of expense connected with high-school graduation, and where the possible range is wide regarding each type, there may be considerable difference in educational opportunity in relation to differences in family income. Probably in some cases this expense factor is great enough to cause students to drop out of school without graduation. It is difficult for the individual senior to do much about the "graduation mores" that may have developed at a particular school. However, there is much that the school as an institution can do through sponsoring various forms of inexpensive entertainment and other activities for graduating seniors, and through its influence to discourage expensive or non-sponsored activities.

Graduation and related expense is, of course, not the only kind of school expense which high-school students incur during the senior year. Expense for books and instructional materials, extracurricular activities, and similar aspects of the school program are considered in other parts of the larger study.

The Practice of Extra Pay in Secondary Schools of the Northeastern States

WARREN J. McCLAIN

A STUDY of the current practices of extra pay for extra services in the secondary schools of the northeastern states has been completed through the co-operation and direction of the Northeastern States Commissioners of Education and the School of Education of Rutgers University. The purpose of this study was (1) to discover current practices with respect to extra pay for extracurricular activities in secondary schools of the northeastern states, (2) to analyze these practices and, (3) in light of the data revealed and in light of current thought on payment for extracurricular activities, to discover guiding principles basic to the development of rules and regulations with respect to the practice of extra pay for extracurricular activities at the local level.

The survey method through the use of a questionnaire and checklist was employed in conducting this study. The first questionnaire form was sent as of July 1, 1952, to all school districts in the eight-state area (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, and Vermont) having secondary schools totaling 1,798 in number. Eleven hundred and seventy-four schools or 65 per cent responded.

Tables throughout the study show the positions and amounts of payment provided in schools by size groupings and a comparison of athletic and non-athletic positions in extracurricular activities. The number of extra-pay positions, median payments, quartiles, and quartile deviations for different size schools in New Jersey and the eight-state area have been placed in table form. Tables of index numbers of payment for New Jersey and the eight-state area are also included.

A checklist was compiled from the reactions of superintendents of schools to certain statements on the first questionnaire and from readings in the field of the problem. The checklist was sent as of July 1, 1953, to every superintendent of a school district in New Jersey having a high school, to every high-school principal, and to three teachers in each of these schools. The items on the checklist were designed to secure opinion about the following:

1. What are some of the causes for present increased demands for extra pay for extracurricular activities?
2. Is payment for extracurricular activities consistent with professional practice?
3. What difficulties are involved when an extracurricular program with extra pay is to be developed?

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4. What are the present points of view regarding payment for extracurricular activities?
5. Are there administrative advantages in a policy which establishes payments for extracurricular activities?
6. What is the best policy of remunerating for extracurricular activities?
7. If payment for extracurricular activities is to be made, what should be the basis for assignment of the activities?
8. Should payment for extracurricular activities be incorporated as part of the teacher's contract?

Tables showing a comparison of reaction by superintendents, principals, and teachers towards statements relative to the problems of an extra-pay policy, together with the rank order of acceptance of these statements by the three groups of respondents, were compiled. A percentage of seventy or better was considered to be significant, and the statement securing this percentage of acceptance by all groups was considered to indicate a guiding principle such as the following:

1. Extra pay is consistent with practices in other professions.
2. Extra pay does not violate the concept of the single salary schedule.
3. Teaching does not become unprofessional when practices of extra pay are introduced.
4. The initiation of an extra-pay practice should come from teacher groups and the developed policy should be a result of teachers and administrators working together.
5. The economic needs of a teacher should not influence assignments, neither should the desire to encourage men to stay in the profession have any bearing on the selection of persons for extra work. Extra work should be assigned on the basis of the teacher's qualifications as to training and preparation. A teacher should not be assigned to an activity far removed from the classroom assignment in nature.
6. Amounts paid should be the result of careful and objective rating or weighting of the activity with recognition of the factors of responsibility and time. A flat hourly rate does not appear desirable but rather a total sum for the activity.
7. Teachers should not receive extra pay for after-school duties of a professional nature.

Once a practice of extra pay is begun, it is almost certain that it will, in time, be extended both as to amounts paid and to the number of persons receiving it. It is recognized that no one plan will work in every school district in every state.

Current practice reveals that the practice of extra pay has increased and will probably continue to do so. The formulation of extra-pay practices has been largely the work of the administration, but there is a growing tendency to use teacher groups as policy makers.

Remuneration for extra work is largely confined to those activities which occur after the close of the school day. As a whole, the amounts paid for extra activities do not appear to be high nor out of proportion to salaries received for classroom instruction.

Principals and superintendents, by a substantial majority, believe that they should consider less the matter of extra pay and more how these activities contribute to the total development of the pupil. Fifty-one per cent of the teachers agree with the administrators.

The basis of computation of extra-pay schedules has been arbitrarily determined in most schools, but there is a tendency to become more objective with increasing emphasis on factors of preparation, training, time required, and the responsibilities involved. The factors of economic conditions, low teacher salaries, single-salary schedules, after-school work opportunities, and changing attitudes of teachers towards their professional responsibilities encourage the establishment of extra-pay practices. As an aid to administrators and boards of education, an outline approach to the solution of the problem of extra pay for extra services has been included in the study.

The annotated bibliography lists twenty-three school districts which have plans now in operation and which have been reported as being satisfactory and acceptable policies or practices of extra pay for extra services to teachers, communities, and boards of education.

The results of this study are not yet available, but, in all probability, it will be published by an interested agency for distribution to all school districts of the eight-state area.

NAM ON FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION

THE president of the National Association of Manufacturers reports that industry leaders are deeply concerned over the "inadequacy" of the funds being spent on education. H. C. McClellan states that industry is particularly disturbed over the "meagerness" of teachers' salaries in relation to the "high caliber of the men and women needed in the schools and the importance of the service they perform. Ways must be found to increase greatly the money spent on education if this country is to go forward and fulfill its destiny as a world leader. We cannot afford the waste of our human resources which would result from parsimony in providing financial support for our schools."

Mr. McClellan, president of the Old Colony Pain and Chemical Co., Los Angeles, addressed the United Business Education Association, a department of the National Educational Association, at a luncheon in the Hotel Statler. The NAM president said that in order to preserve the traditional freedom of education from domination by any political or economic group it is essential that the support of education remain a responsibility of states, localities, individuals, and groups of individuals, adding: "Desperate as is the need for larger funds for education, we must avoid at all costs asking or permitting the Federal government to pick up the tab. That would most certainly lead to uniformity and conformity, even if the Federal government refrained from dictating how schools should be run and what children should be taught."

Mr. McClellan states that the NAM's more than 20,000 members are taking a growing interest in the problems of the schools and that his association has for years urged its members and businessmen generally to give stronger support to education. He said that anyone who questions industry's interest in education would benefit by reading *This We Believe About Education*, a booklet published recently by the association, in which are summarized the finding of a two-year study by a group of educators and industrialists.

Color Blindness in the Schools

ISRAEL DVORINE

THE prevalence of color blindness among the male population in the schools of this country is well known to vision specialists concerned with this problem. How extensive is it? Experts agree that the number of color blind and color weak is no less than five per cent and may be as high as ten per cent. If one out of every ten boys has defective color vision, it would seem prudent on the part of school authorities to examine the color vision of all school children, if for no other reason than to prevent the handicapped young people from launching on a career for which they are not biologically suited. After years of preparation and just as they are about to reach their goal, many of them are rejected because of failure to pass a color discrimination test. Color blind people do not suffer nor are they incapacitated except for the fact that they are not visually suited for certain professions or trades.

Consider the problem of a color-blind young man who is preparing himself for a medical career. His handicap may not be apparent to him nor to his instructors until he applies for admission to a medical school. The need for identification of stained tissues, the color of blood, skin, *etc.*, makes it necessary that all doctors should have normal color vision. Faced with a rejection at such a critical period in his career, his disappointment, not to mention the time and money spent in preparing for the medical profession, is heart-breaking, to say the least. Nor does this visual defect limit their usefulness only in professions dealing with health. One would not consider the position of a filing clerk or office work of a similar nature as a vocation which requires good color discrimination. Yet, the use of many colored card indexing systems with colored tabs and pastel-colored cards poses a serious problem for the individual with weak or defective color vision. Many more examples could be cited to emphasize the need for an early examination of the color sense.

Color blindness is either total or partial, congenital or acquired. Total color blindness is extremely rare and is usually associated with some ocular disease. A totally color blind individual is extremely sensitive to light and may have difficulty in seeing in general. These cases are not likely to be found in the schools in large numbers. Partial color blindness is more frequently congenital

EDITOR'S NOTE—A new set of plates has been designed recently by Dr. Dvorine, which contains features not present in the older tests. The test is called *Dvorine Pseudo-Ischromatic Plates* and is in two parts, for literate as well as illiterate individuals and children. It contains color combinations not previously used and has a color nomenclature test to select the color blind from the color ignorant. The directions are simple, and no special training or knowledge is required of the examiner to administer the test. The price of the Dvorine Plates is \$12, and the set can be obtained from the author at 2328 Eutaw Place, Baltimore, Maryland.

than acquired. The individual, in most cases, is not even aware of his visual defect until he is required to pass a color test. The acquired type is generally found in older people and is either associated with a health problem or is due to the aging process.

The color blind test most frequently favored by lay people as well as by the professional examiner is a set of printed plates consisting of many colored dots of various sizes. In the center of the plate the dots are grouped in such a manner as to form one or more digits or a winding trail, contrasting in color with the background of the plate. Failure to identify the digits or to follow the trail is an indication of defective color vision.

STATE-FEDERAL AGREEMENT TO REDUCE CHILD-LABOR VIOLATIONS

SECRETARY of Labor James P. Mitchell states that employers who obtain work permits or age certificates for young people they hire are unlikely to run afoul of the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. He said Labor Department records show that employers found complying with child-labor regulations had work permits or age certificates for 85 per cent of their young workers, compared with only 31 per cent for those found violating the law.

Secretary Mitchell says the employment certification program has been so effective in preventing child-labor violations that the Labor Department has entered into new agreements with 44 states, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico to accept their work permits or age certificates as evidence of age under the Fair Labor Standards Act during the coming year.

"These agreements," Secretary Mitchell states, "are part of a Federal-State program of co-operation. They are an outstanding example of how Federal and state governments can co-operate, not only to protect employers from unwitting violation of child-labor laws, but also to help young people to get a good start on the right job. The right beginning job is important to young people because of its influence on their future working habits. The local officials who issue work permits or age certificates to young workers have an important responsibility. It is their job to see that our youth who seek fulltime, part-time, or summer employment receive the full benefit of the laws set up to protect young workers from unsafe or unsuitable employment. The Labor Department offers all of its facilities to help in this task."

Give Them All a High School Diploma

J. D. THOMPSON

A FIVE-YEAR EXPERIMENT

WE CONTEND that a high-school diploma generally is proof of just one thing; namely, that its possessor has studied for some period of time at or under the direction of some high school. We can assume, however, that the possessor has at least a smattering of what we call education. With this in mind, we, at the Coosa County Training School, have inaugurated an experiment which proposes to award every student a high-school diploma on the following basis: *First*, that his attendance for the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades is satisfactory, and *second*, that his conduct during this period is satisfactory to the extent that he is not expelled or suspended from school for any long period. Academic requirements are completely eliminated—that is, passing grades are not required.

As is the case in all experiments, we have made certain assumptions which we hope to test. But the principal purpose of our experiment is to find a more satisfactory way of achieving the aims and objectives of our educational program. Specifically, we hope better to fit our educational program to the needs of our students and our community. In this connection we have accepted as a guiding principle the idea that the primary purpose of our school, and public schools generally, is to help develop good citizens.

Our main assumption is that students will learn and profit as much or more from a school program which does not require any particular passing grades for graduation as they will from one which makes such requirements. What students "learn" solely for the purpose of passing examinations is of doubtful value. Our experiment places the responsibility of making the program worth while on the teacher and the school. We believe that, in order to make our school program what it should be, we must first get away from certain traditional practices which have tended to discourage change and progress.

We still give grades and grade points. Students may or may not take examinations—as they wish. However, examinations must be taken if the student wishes to earn the kind of grades which are usually required for college entrance.

Our experimental plan is simple. We are doing three things: *First*, we eliminated scholastic requirements for promotion or graduation in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. *Second*, we are attempting to develop a program which places greater emphasis on the development of well-rounded citizens, including

J. D. Thompson is Principal of the Coosa County Training School, Cottage Grove, Alabama. This experiment is a five-year plan with a follow-up of the graduates in order to ascertain their achievement in post-school life.

more emphasis on moral and spiritual values. *Third*, as an experiment we are making a study of the results of the first two steps. It is proposed that the experiment run for five years. We shall compare the work of students since the experiment started with the work of the same students before it started. The work of various classes before and after the experiment will be compared. Factors for comparison will be marks, attendance, dropouts, attitudes, and general social development. In addition to records which are and will be available, questionnaires are filled out periodically by both teachers and students.

What we are doing we refer to it as both an experiment and a plan. As an experiment we hope to learn something which might contribute a little toward progress in public education. As a plan we have made only a small beginning on what we expect to develop. We must recognize the necessity for a small beginning because some adjustments must be made by both teachers and students. Again, our facilities are limited. Finally, the plan is one which must be developed over a period of time.

PURPOSES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL PLAN

1. To explode the myth relative to the value in the diploma itself—that is, to de-emphasize the importance of the diploma.
2. To place emphasis on the record which one makes and thus set up achievement as a goal for each student.
3. To allow each student to learn at his own rate without being considered a failure because he does not meet some so-called standard. However, high quality work is emphasized.
4. To make it possible for students to work and study without the anxiety of graduating.
5. To change students' attitudes about success and failure.
6. To adjust the curriculum more to the needs and abilities of students.
7. To place more emphasis on citizenship, moral and spiritual values.
8. To place students more on their own.
9. To encourage students to remain in school.

RESULTS EXPECTED FROM THE PLAN

1. Better pupil-teacher relations.
2. Teachers will be less likely to "give" a passing grade just in order for student to pass or finish.
3. Students who graduate with low grades will be less likely to enter college. (If colleges take them, such students must either make up for grades, or colleges must make some adjustments for them.) Such students will be more likely to enter trade or vocational schools.
4. Students who have the ability and plan to attend college will probably do better work in high school, knowing that they may finish high school and still not be able to enter college.

5. Students who do not plan to enter college or other schools will be better prepared to take their places in the community because their training will have been designed for this purpose.

6. Students will be encouraged to remain in school.

7. Parents may take a more cordial attitude toward the school.

8. If this idea should spread, we will have better products coming out of colleges. But also, we will need more trade and vocational schools.

In attempting a plan or experiment of this kind, we were conscious of the fact that certain problems might arise or that certain adverse results might occur. We, therefore, proposed in advance to be on the alert for such problems as loafing by students, relaxing by teachers, lowering of standards, quality of work, disorder in work, disciplinary problems, unappreciative attitudes, and adjustment problems.

DEFENSE

Even before our idea and plan have been attacked, we have proposed our defense.

1. The plan is proposed as an experiment, an idea to be tried. It is an honest effort to improve our educational program.

2. Some will say that we are lowering our standard, but we are attempting to substitute achievement, rather than a diploma, as a goal. As far as academic achievement is concerned, the standard is already exceedingly low for most students. It cannot get much lower (a frank admission).

3. Our plan and procedures (curriculum) are based on accepted educational theory and philosophy.

4. We are using the regular adopted textbooks and course of study as a general guide.

A PARTIAL EVALUATION AT THE END OF ONE YEAR

From the answers which were given on a questionnaire near the end of the school term, tenth-, eleventh-, and twelfth-grade students revealed the following: 63 per cent of the students had noticed that school work was different this year; 30 per cent had studied more, 65 per cent studied about the same, and 5 per cent said they studied less; 23 per cent felt that teachers had graded harder this year; 8 per cent would have quit school before the end of the term if they had not known that they were going to be graduated or promoted; 90 per cent believe that the plan will help to keep students in school; 54 per cent believe that students will have a better attitude toward the school, while 40 per cent were not sure and 6 per cent said no. None have deliberately cut examinations or tests. 61 per cent like the plan, 2 per cent do not like it, and 37 per cent said that it does not matter.

There were ten teachers who taught something to some or all of the above grades. From answers which were given on a questionnaire near the end of the school term, teachers revealed the following: Two teachers felt that students

had tended to cut class more this year, but seven felt that they had not. Seven teachers have been more rigid in their grading this year. One teacher said one student deliberately failed to take a test. Seven teachers felt that students did as well in their work this year as they did last year; one said no; two gave no answers. Nine of the teachers gave more time to elements of citizenship. Nine teachers felt that students will work just as well when no passing grades are required as they will when they are required; one was not sure. None of the teachers felt that the school standard had been lowered. On a mid-term questionnaire, six teachers felt that students' conduct was better, three felt it was the same, and one gave no answer. At the end of the term the teachers as a whole expressed faith in the plan and felt that the experiment should be continued.

At this early point we have been especially interested in a partial comparison in subject matter grades made this year with those made last year. A comparison of 1952-53 and 1953-54 point averages reveal the following:

10th grade: 1952-53, 1.36; 1953-54, 1.71.

11th grade: 1952-53, 1.37; 1953-54, 1.78.

12th grade: 1952-53, 1.41; 1953-54, .82.

All three grades combined: 1952-53, 1.38; 1953-54, 1.44.

At this point we are not much concerned with interpretations. Since this is the result of only one year of the experiment, we are not ready to draw any conclusions. The above figures may or may not be significant. For the twelfth grade, however, we tentatively give the following reasons for the average drop this year: (1) Except for possibly four or five members of the class, they knew that they were not likely to go to college; (2) they know that they did not have to make passing grades to be graduated; (3) 70 per cent of the teachers were more rigid in their grading.

In terms of answers on questionnaires by both teachers and students, and in terms of our experiences and observations this year, the experiment and plan is entirely encouraging. Yet we recognize the fact that much remains to be done in order to carry out the principal ideas involved in the plan.

SOME THEORY, FACTS, AND PHILOSOPHY BEHIND THE EXPERIMENT

The American idea of universal education is a splendid idea and is quite in keeping with the principles and precepts of democracy. It is *unfortunate*, however, that after such a long time and much effort our educational system has not become properly adjusted to universal or mass education. There may be several reasons for this, but it appears that the principal reason is that this country first adopted and set up an educational system which was designed by and for a society which was altogether different from ours. It is well known that schools were originally designed for the selected few.

Schools have made some progress in the last 150 years, but except for vocational training and except for a few experimental schools they have not got too far away from the original design and pattern. Many good theories and

ideas have been advanced for improving our schools, but we have been bound too strongly by traditions. We cannot turn loose the past.

The society in which schools originated saw no need for educating the masses. They saw need only for educating a special class. This special class was given training designed to fill their needs. It is quite possible that, had that society set up schools for the masses, those schools would have been designed to fill their particular needs whatever they may have been.

It is true that, in this country which recognizes no classes as such, there is the theory that almost anybody might some day become president. The fact is, however, that the great majority of people will never be more than just ordinary citizens. It is this obvious fact to which our schools have not given enough attention.

In a democracy it would seem that public education would have as its primary objective the development of good citizens. To this end most people need only to acquire certain basic facts, skills, habits, and understanding. An untold amount of time, energy, and money are spent annually in vain trying to get some students to learn classic literature and technical aspects of sciences, arts, and mathematics. Teachers hammer day after day on such topics with students who show no signs of grasping them. We don't seem to realize that a person can live a complete and successful life without ever having heard of either Shakespeare, Euclid, or Galileo.

Let us point out one situation or practice to illustrate a weakness in our secondary schools. Almost every high school has behind the planning of its curriculum and program at least some vague notion of fifteen or sixteen units and college entrance requirements. Yet we know that for most public schools and communities only a small percentage of high-school graduates will go to college, and many of those who go should be advised to go to a trade school or elsewhere because they have neither the ability nor the aptitude to profit from the average college curriculum.

College entrance requirements have stood in the way of change and progress by secondary schools. As it has been said, elementary schools have made much more progress in the right direction than have our high schools. No proposal is made here to discuss the college program, but in passing it should be pointed out that many of our colleges must sooner or later decide whether or not they are to be professional institutions, institutions for general education, social-entertainment centers, or a combination of all. Any decision they make in this regard will call for considerable change in their program and practices.

Part of our trouble lies in the fact that most of our programs and materials seem to be designed for scholars. Let one point be clear—no plan or program should ever be devised to discourage those who can become true scholars. It is also desirable that the general cultural level of the entire citizenry be raised, but a nation of intellectuals, as the word is commonly used, is hardly desirable. There are two types of people, the intellectual and the non-intellectual.

The intellectual type is capable of mastering highly theoretical materials. The non-intellectual type is not capable of mastering such materials to any high degree. Besides, he is not interested. This type may excel, however, with materials of a more practical nature. Along with that, he is capable of acquiring the necessary skills, habits, facts, and understanding which will enable him to become a worthy useful citizen.

Schools have attempted to cram all students into a common mold. This country will continue to throw away large sums of money and human resources until our school system is properly set up so as to offer the greatest opportunities possible for the development of each type of student.

What we need are some new points of reference and new channels for our thinking. We are not likely to make the progress we should make in public education until we discard certain antiquated points of reference such as traditional diplomas, caps and gowns, sixteen units—prorated, college preparation, uniformity, clock-hour credits, and false and meaningless standards. Then, what should serve as a new point of reference? Only this: see that each student learns as much as he can or will from a program designed to help him to become a good citizen and to make his maximum contribution to society.

In setting up such a program, we should keep in mind the fact that qualities of good citizenship, good social behavior, and a balanced personality are not developed through the acquirement of bits of history, mathematics, science, and so on; but that they are developed mainly through proper associations within a wholesome social atmosphere. This condition plus the acquirement of a few basic facts, skills, habits, and understanding, we believe, will make for good citizens and thus fulfill what should be the primary purpose of the public schools.

AN AID FOR THE LIBRARY

A NEW publication devoted to articles on developments in library work with children and young people and reviews of children's books begins publication in September. A copy of the first issue is offered free on request. Address Gertrude Wolff, Editor, JUNIOR LIBRARIES, 62 West 45th Street, New York 36, New York

JUNIOR LIBRARIES is sponsored by the Library Journal but will confine itself entirely to the field of school and children's libraries. It will offer full-length reviews of every important book published below the adult level, plus news and articles on reading, current trends in the curriculum, and related fields. Regular subscribers to the Library Journal will receive JUNIOR LIBRARIES as a part of their subscription. Others may subscribe to JUNIOR LIBRARIES alone at \$2.50 a year.

Recognition of the Variation of Maturity of Pupils in Six-Year High Schools

CARL F. BONAR and P. W. HUTSON

MORE than twenty years ago the National Survey of Secondary Education was conducted by the U. S. Office of Education. One of the projects of the Survey was an appraisal and comparison of the several forms of organization of secondary education,¹ such as four-year high schools, separate junior and senior high schools, and undivided six-year high schools. From data on the practices and features of large numbers of schools of each type, the conclusion was reached that junior-senior high schools and undivided six-year schools excelled the other organizations in both comprehensiveness and consistency of organization.

This finding received much attention at the time of publication and no doubt served to give impetus and direction to the reorganization movement in secondary education. Certainly six-year secondary schools have multiplied with great rapidity in the past two decades. Yet the authors clearly expressed the limitations of the criteria by which they had judged school organization, especially pointing out that "the mental and emotional outcomes of complex large-school groupings and of schemes of organization by which relatively young pupils are thrown into contact with pupils who are relatively mature have not been given any immediate consideration."²

It is in connection with this latter point that the study here reported was made. Many thoughtful persons—both parents and teachers—have in one way or another expressed the idea that the variation in maturity among the pupils of a six-year high school is so great that special pains should be taken to recognize it. True it is that pupils practically pass from childhood to adulthood in the six years spanned by grades 7 to 12. At the beginning of the seventh grade most of the boys and perhaps half of the girls are still pre-pubescent. Most of them will have entered pubescence before they enter the

¹ Francis T. Spaulding, O. I. Frederick, and Leonard V. Koos, *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 5. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

² *Ibid.*, p. 248.

The study here reported was to have been the doctoral dissertation of Mr. Bonar, late dean of instruction, West Liberty State College, West Virginia. Before he could complete the tabulation of his data, death overtook him. The research seemed too valuable to be allowed to die with its author; hence, with the co-operation of Mrs. Bonar, it was brought to completion and is here reported in its essential elements.—P. W. Hutson, Professor of Education, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

tenth grade. The young people finishing grade 12 are ready to step into adult pursuits—military service, vocation, marriage.

When separate junior and senior schools are provided for secondary education, it may readily be expected that they will be different. When all six grades are in one school, how is the variation in maturity recognized?

To obtain an answer to this question, a blank of inquiry into "Practices in Six-Year High Schools" was drawn up and sent to the principals of six-year high schools in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Kentucky, Ohio, and Indiana. Schools enrolling fewer than 150 pupils were not canvassed because it was felt that practices in such schools might reflect lack of numbers more than the educational viewpoint of the administration. Schools with enrollments of more than 1,000 were omitted from the canvass because it was felt that the number of replies might be too few to enable the investigator to arrive at authentic conclusions. Under these limitations, 942 blanks were sent out; 371 were returned.

The inquiry called for practices in five areas, as follows: organization of instruction, activities, assemblies, student participation in school government and school services, and housing. The purpose of the study—to find out how variation in maturity was being recognized—was not generally indicated to the respondents. They were simply asked for school practices by grades—7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12—from which the investigator could make his own interpretations. The replies were partitioned according to size of school, as follows: 119 schools enrolling 150 to 249; 171 schools enrolling 250 to 499; and 81 schools enrolling 500 to 999. They will be referred to as the small, medium, and large schools.

ORGANIZATION OF INSTRUCTION

The first question designed to ascertain practice in the organization of instruction was, "How many different subject teachers does the pupil of each grade normally have this semester?" Table I affords the briefest summary of the responses, showing that the median number of teachers declines from the larger to the smaller schools, but that median practice in each group of schools varies very little from grade to grade. Only in the large and medium schools does the median number of subject teachers appear noticeably larger in the seventh and eighth grades than in the other grades.

TABLE I.—Median Number of Subject Teachers Which the Pupils of Each Grade Normally Have

	G R A D E S					
	7	8	9	10	11	12
Large schools	6.03	6.22	5.68	5.46	5.39	5.32
Medium schools	5.57	5.68	5.38	5.21	5.18	5.18
Small schools	4.90	5.04	4.94	5.02	4.98	4.91

Table I signifies the uniform application of the principle of subject specialization, or departmentalization, in the six-year secondary school. Perhaps by 1960 the apparently rising acceptance of the "force curriculum," "core studies," and "common learnings" may so alter the organization of instruction that pupils in junior high-school grades will typically have a smaller number of subject teachers than the pupils in senior high-school grades.

The blank of inquiry called for data on class size for each of the several grades to ascertain enrollments in largest class, smallest class, and average class in academic subjects and in special subjects. When tabulations were completed, the results offered no clue to differentiation or lack of differentiation in respect for maturity. Administrative expediency is probably the controlling factor at both junior and senior levels.

The number of class periods per day in these schools was with few exceptions 6, 7, or 8. For purposes of this study it is more important to note that the number of periods within each school did not vary; it was uniform and undifferentiated for all the pupils. The number of periods per week devoted to classwork did vary slightly, however, as shown in Table II, the medians being higher in the junior high-school grades for all three sizes of schools. Correspondingly, senior high-school pupils have more study periods than junior high-school pupils.

TABLE II.—Median Number of Periods of Classwork the Pupil Usually Carries Per Week

	G R A D E S			
	7	8	9	10-12
Large schools	24.9	24.9	24.6	24.0
Medium schools	24.6	24.6	22.7	22.3
Small schools	24.2	24.2	23.5	22.2

Presumably, the slight distinction between upper and lower levels in this particular signifies a practice of directing the study of younger pupils during the class hour, in contrast to the use of study assignments with older pupils for work outside the class hour. Apparently, however, most schools leave this distinction to the judgment of the individual teacher. To the question, "Is there any administrative ruling regarding assignments of homework?" 79.5 per cent of the principals answered *No*, 18.3 per cent answered *Yes*, and 2.2 per cent did not reply. Those who answered *Yes* were asked to state the ruling. The summary showed that 75 per cent of the 60 stated rulings were uniform regulations for the whole school, as, "Should take home one subject." The other 25 per cent indicated differentiation of pupils according to maturity, as, "Little or no homework in grades 7 and 8; from 1 to 3 hours in grades 9, 10, 11, and 12 on an increasing scale by grade levels."

An additional question was asked to ferret out practices in the organization of instruction which indicated recognition of differences in maturity. It read as follows: "Are there differences in instructional techniques or practices between the junior and senior grades? (Example: Yes would be encircled if grades 7 and 8 have supervised study periods and others do not.)" The replies to this candid invitation were *Yes*, 25.6 per cent; *No*, 69.0 per cent; and no response, 5.4 per cent. Of the differences described, the one most frequently mentioned was the use of a larger portion of the class period for directed study with the younger pupils than with the older ones.

By way of summarizing practices in the organization of instruction, it may be said that this inquiry did not bring out much evidence of recognition of variation in the maturity of the pupils. Uniformity is more characteristic than differentiation, though it must be borne in mind that the data of this study do not include the adaptations which individual teachers make.

ACTIVITIES

In the field of extracurricular activities, the questionnaire called for practices in seven areas. The first of these areas was intramural athletics, for which Table III shows the sports that were checked with highest frequency by the principals of the large high schools. Touch football, basketball, track and field, volleyball, and softball appeared with about the same frequencies in the lower grades as

TABLE III.—Percentages of Large Schools Sponsoring Certain Intramural Sports in Each Grade

	G R A D E S					
	7	8	9	10	11	12
Football	11	17	36	35	33	33
Touch football	30	32	33	30	30	27
Basketball	85	86	89	89	89	89
Track and field	27	27	32	30	30	30
Baseball	14	14	26	26	26	26
Tennis	9	9	16	20	20	20
Volleyball	60	59	63	60	59	58
Softball	59	60	64	62	60	60

in the higher grades; while football, baseball, and tennis were checked more frequently for the upper four grades than for grades 7 and 8. Reasons for the differentiated offering of these last three sports can only be guessed at; perhaps the expense of equipment and inadequacy of playing space made it impossible to accommodate all grades; hence, the participation of the younger pupils was postponed. Similar distinctions were found among the small and the medium schools.

The second area of extracurricular activities included in the inquiry was that of interscholastic athletics. A fairly representative sampling of the practices reported is shown as Table IV, which makes it quite plain that pupils of the seventh and eighth grades are much less frequently involved in interscholastic competition than pupils of grades 10, 11, and 12. The percentages also make it apparent that pupils of the ninth grade must in some schools be classified with the older group and in other schools with the younger one. In the schools in which pupils of the junior grades participate in interscholastic sports, such pupils have teams separate from those of the senior grades.

TABLE IV.—Percentages of Large Schools Sponsoring Certain Interscholastic Sports in Each Grade

Sport	G R A D E S					
	7	8	9	10	11	12
Football	28	35	80	94	94	94
Basketball	62	65	94	99	99	99
Baseball	11	11	36	47	46	46
Track and field	20	21	46	53	53	53
Softball	6	5	9	10	10	10
Tennis	2	2	20	27	28	28
Golf	1	1	14	19	20	20

The data of Table IV lend themselves to contrasting interpretations. The fact that so many junior high-school pupils do not have an opportunity for participation in interscholastic sports may be looked upon by some as deplorable discrimination; others may say it signifies a realization on the part of some school authorities that junior high-school pupils are too young to be introduced to interscholastic competition, that variation in maturity in the six-year secondary school is being wholesomely recognized by such schools.

In the area of musical organizations, a sampling of the data collected is offered in Table V. It shows that among the large schools differentiation for maturity generally did not prevail in band and orchestra organizations. They were open to all pupils. Such practice, of course, operates to the disadvantage of the younger pupils, for, in general, they cannot compete with the older pupils and, therefore, cannot win places in the instrumental musical organizations.

In journalistic activities, differences in maturity are recognized, but mainly to deprive the younger pupils of opportunity for any experience. For example, eligibility to the staff of the yearbook was limited generally to pupils of the eleventh and twelfth grades. Eligibility to the staff of the school newspaper was limited in the majority of the schools to the pupils of the upper four grades. Of course, in those other schools which declared all six grades eligible

to the staff, the competition would work to the disadvantage of the younger pupils. None of these schools issued two newspapers—one by and for the junior high-school pupils, one by and for the senior high-school pupils. Such a practice would seem impracticable, indeed foolish, although when separate junior and senior high schools exist, each publishes its own newspaper.

In public speaking and dramatic activities, these schools discriminated markedly in favor of their upperclass pupils. Just as an example of the data, approximately 88 per cent of the large schools offered no opportunity in inter-scholastic competition for pupils of the seventh and eighth grades; approximately 80 per cent offered those grades no opportunity in annual dramatic

TABLE V.—Extent of Differentiation of Musical Organizations in Large Schools

	Differentiated for Maturity (Percentage of Schools)			Total
	Yes	No	No Reply*	
Band	26	79	4	100
Orchestra	28	48	24	100
Vocal	82	16	3	101

* Or no organization reported

events; approximately 55 per cent, no opportunity in occasional dramatic events; approximately 79 per cent, no opportunity in dramatic clubs; and approximately 96 per cent, no opportunities in public speaking or literary societies.

In the area of school clubs, the direction in the questionnaire was as follows: "In the form below, indicate the scope of the *school-sponsored, teacher-guided* program of school clubs by listing the clubs in your school and indicating by check marks (x) in the proper spaces the grade of the pupils who may belong to them." Space permits mention of only a significant sample of the data received on this subject. In the large schools, the median number of clubs to which pupils of the seventh grade were eligible was 1.68; the corresponding median for pupils of the twelfth grade was 7.50. Most of the clubs to which the junior high-school pupils were eligible were clubs which were open to all six grades. Occasionally a school offered such differentiation as a "junior science club" (7, 8, 9) and a "senior science club" (10, 11, 12).

The final area of extracurricular activity inquired into was that of school events—parties, dances, banquets, picnics, *etc.* Here the picture was much the same as for clubs, that is, the senior group having a much richer life, many more experiences, than the junior group.

ASSEMBLIES OF STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL GOVERNMENT

Some of the data submitted on the practice in student assemblies were difficult to interpret because physical facilities for assemblies were not ascertained. For example, in line with the general problem of this research, an effort was made

to determine the extent of differentiation by the holding of separate assemblies for the junior and senior high-school groups. In the course of tabulation, however, it became evident that many schools which held such separate assemblies did so because the auditorium was not large enough to seat both groups. The whole student body always, or nearly always, met together in assemblies in 60.6 per cent of the large schools, in 77.3 per cent of the medium schools, and in 83.9 per cent of the small schools. If size of auditorium was the reason why some of the remaining schools held separate assemblies for the junior and senior high-school groups, it would appear that differentiation for maturity was not a consequential factor in the selection of assembly programs.

The principals were also asked to indicate by check marks on a simple form the relative opportunity the pupils of each grade had to participate in assembly programs. The summation of their check marks—for all schools—is shown as Table VI.

TABLE VI.—Percentage Distributions of the Principals' Responses for Each Grade According to Their Estimate of the Extent of Pupil Participation in Assembly Programs

Extent of Participation	G R A D E S					
	7	8	9	10	11	12
Never	4.1	3.4	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.4
Occasionally	71.5	71.5	60.5	45.4	38.2	36.5
Frequently	24.4	25.1	37.8	52.9	60.4	62.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Comparison of the grades shows a steady increase from the seventh to the twelfth grades in the estimated extent of pupil participation. With undifferentiated programs, such an inequality is to be expected, but it does emphasize once more the tendency to operate the six-year high school by and for the older pupils.

Turning to the practices in student participation in school government, it was found that about 75 per cent of the large schools, 62 per cent of the medium schools, and 45 per cent of the small schools had student councils. In all but a few of these schools, one council served the entire school, although in a small percentage of cases pupils of the lower grades did not participate in the council. In 9.9 per cent of the large schools, and in 2.9 per cent of the medium schools, the responses showed separate councils for grades 7 to 9 and 10 to 12. Was the existence of two councils incident to or related to the division of the student body between two buildings? A check on the responses given by those principals to the section on "Housing" showed no such relationship, from which it seemed that their provision of two councils was a *bona fide* attempt to differentiate according to maturity.

HOUSING

To ascertain how the housing of the student body affected or signified differentiation according to maturity, the respondents were given space for freely describing the housing of their pupils. It was suggested, however, that they tell if all pupils were housed in the same building, and if so, if they were distributed so as to minimize contacts between junior and senior divisions. Furthermore, the principals were asked to indicate whether elementary-school pupils were housed in the same building with high-school pupils. In Table VII a summary of the data yielded by this section of the inquiry shows that differentiation of the pupils according to maturity is not well accomplished by the housing plans of the schools. Most of these six-year schools are housed in one building, and not a few of them also house elementary grades. Claims to the use of various methods of minimizing contacts between junior and senior divisions were expressed with much greater frequency for the large schools than for the small ones; but even so, more than half of the large schools were making no attempt by these devices to acknowledge the difference in the maturity of their student bodies.

TABLE VII.—Summary of the Data Descriptive of Housing Practices

	<i>Small Schools</i>	<i>Medium Schools</i>	<i>Large Schools</i>
Percentage of schools with pupils housed in:			
One building	91.0	84.8	77.9
Two buildings	7.2	12.7	16.9
Three or more buildings	1.8	2.5	5.2
Percentages also having elementary grades housed with secondary	34.2	20.4	13.0
Percentages mentioning various methods of minimizing contacts:			
Different floors	6.3	15.0	20.8
Different wings	2.7	5.4	13.0
Separate buildings	.9	4.8	7.8
Other	.9	5.4	5.2
All	10.8	30.6	46.8

CONCLUSIONS

The practices of six-year high schools, as disclosed in this research, show a relative lack of recognition of the variation in maturity among the pupils. The evidence presented also indicates that the lack of differentiation results in inadequate educational opportunity for the younger pupils.

In the organization of instruction, the same pattern of departmental organization prevails throughout the school. The number and length of class periods are uniform. Differences in the use of the class period in respect for maturity are seldom a matter about which school policy is concerned—they are, therefore, left to individual teacher judgment.

In extracurricular life the data definitely leave one with the impression that the school is run by and for the older pupils. While such organizations as the school orchestra and the newspaper staff may be open to pupils of all grades, the younger pupils are at a disadvantage because of being unable to win places against the competition of the more mature. The lack of clubs and events in social recreation for the junior grades is appalling, for *they* have social interests which need outlet and developmental opportunity quite as much as their older brothers and sisters. Assemblies are dominated by the older pupils; naturally, they have more fully developed talents with which the younger members cannot compete.

In housing, practices in recognition of differences are plainly inadequate or altogether wanting. The housing picture drawn by this research, however, is very sketchy. There is no information as to the extent to which the schools were simply making the best of old buildings. Certainly many districts are using school structures that were erected before the idea of the six-year secondary school was born. However, during the past twenty years many new buildings have been erected specifically for six-year high schools. What consideration has been given in such building plans to the problem presented in this paper is not known. It is, however, distressing to find no recognition of the problem in a recent comprehensive work on planning secondary-school buildings.⁸

The principal who would realize that the six-year school presents a problem in differentiation according to maturity, who would define the problem, and then do something about it has only to read selections from the voluminous literature on the junior high school and visit a few favorably recognized junior high schools to make a firsthand study of their program. There are schools especially adapted to the needs of pupils of grades 7, 8, and 9. Pupils of these same grades in the six-year school are just as much entitled to the kind of school life and opportunity we have for years been advocating for junior high schools.

⁸ N. L. Engelhardt; N. L. Engelhardt, Jr.; and Stanton Leggett, *Planning Secondary School Buildings*. New York: Reinhold Publishing Corporation, 1949.

Public Relations in the Secondary School

JOHN A. HARP, JR.

ONE of the primary characteristics of the good school administrator is that he has faith in the people whom he serves. There are three areas in which the administrator's faith must make him willing to trust. In the *first* place, the good school administrator must believe that the people in his school community are smart enough to want good schools; *second*, he must believe that they are willing to face facts; and *third*, that, when people have the facts, they will be willing to go along with him in his plans for serving the youth of the community.

Service to a community cannot be a static thing represented by an unchanging level of achievements in which the same people are having their problems met in the same way, but must be an expanding function which results from increased recognition of the community's problems and from greater concepts of the school's service possibilities. When the good school administrator considers the problem of the people's interest in their schools, he must keep in mind that they are not in a position to realize the school's needs nor its possibilities as well as he, a professionally trained person, is. This presents an element of patron education into the school program and makes it just as important that they be brought up to have the same understanding as he has as a professional leader. Certainly, he cannot build a great school system by himself and, just as certainly, he cannot get the people to support his ideas unless they know, understand, and believe in his plans.

It does not necessarily follow that the accepted plan will be built from his own ideas nor is it desirable that they should be, for the well-educated people of a community are certainly in a position to contribute to the development of a school plan and program even as they are suited to contributing to its realizations. With this thought in mind, we have been trying continually to provide all possible information to the people of our community. It has been our feeling that special efforts are often distrusted. It seems possible to us that the school patron feels that he is about to be used when such special efforts are made, especially, when they follow a period in which there has been practically no information about the schools furnished them. It is also impossible for an honest picture of the school to be given in a promotional campaign-type program, for the temptation is too great in such a case to present only the great needs or the unusual possibilities of a new idea and there is little time—at least insufficient time—to give the people all of the facts. It is our firm conviction that the people of a community need to know all the facts about

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their schools. They need to know about the areas in which you are failing and why, as well as they need to know about your successes and achievements. It seems somewhat silly for school administrators to assume that a community is going to support their plans when they don't know what the present status of the school program is. The information given the public should cover every phase of the school program, plans and problems from the enrichment possibilities in the curriculum to the cleaning problems of the janitorial staff.

PEOPLE WANT TO KNOW ABOUT THEIR SCHOOL

Just to mention a few of the areas which represent information that should be covered, there are the size of classes, total enrollment, school offering, extra-curricular activity program, school calendar, administrative office hours, special news and radio programs, guidance program, plans for special events, library, success of former graduates, results of and reasons for testing programs, needs for equipment, possible additional services, plans for increased service, and possibilities of improvement. Most anyone could give some thought to this and increase the list to include fifteen or twenty times this many different areas, but the important point I would like to make is that we do need to think all of the time about all the possibilities of sources of information in the whole school plan, program, and operation; and then these possibilities should be exhausted of all their news and information potentialities.

Having gotten information about the different areas of the school program, it is then necessary that they be presented in a way which will contact all the people of the community; so that all who come in contact with this information will understand it.

Certainly, one of the best ways to provide understandability is to plan an integrated program so that there is continuity in the presentation of information. Anyone will readily understand that if the information presented is done on the basis of a grab-bag sort of hodge-podge program without a plan which provides for continuity, the people will have trouble understanding the relationship between the different elements presented and trying to integrate them. This may result in their losing interest and refusing to try to keep up with your school publicity; or worse yet, they may come to the conclusion that no plan exists in your school program. It is essential, therefore, that we start our school publicity program by sitting down and very carefully planning it over a long period of time. This plan should always stay at least a semester in advance of your program. Please bear in mind that this doesn't apply to the details in the plan but that it does apply very seriously to the plan outline.

While you probably have some better device for planning your information program, may we describe one idea which we feel will be of benefit to those who have not already devised a means for looking ahead and reducing to a minimum the possibility that some important event may be overlooked. When you start your fall term, or better still a month before you start it, buy yourself

an extra calendar which you will keep sacred for a news-reminder calendar. Take your school calendar in which you have listed the events for the coming year and, looking it over, make notes on your school news calendar as to the dates when you plan releases to cover the various school activities. Plan to stay ahead of all school activities and to tell the public about their coming. Remember, too, that some of these activities will have to have follow-up features written about them so that people will know how they turned out and make a definite reminder to yourself for the news possibilities of every item on your school calendar. Don't forget that this should include your guidance program, athletic department, staff changes, increased services, and your school needs. Think in terms of keeping the people informed and in terms of being of service to them in helping them to know and understand what your school is going to do. Don't wait until an important event has passed without any news to cover it, to regret having overlooked it, but plan your school news calendar just like you plan your school activity calendar. If errors are to be made, make them in the direction of covering more of the school and its program than you should. If you think that in some ways the school program represents a news possibility, do your best to find out about it and get that possibility published.

It is not our purpose to try to name all media which may be used nor to describe in detail how they may be used. Our important task is to sell school leaders on the fact that they can do something and that they can carry out successfully ideas which they are inspired to attempt.

There are many possible media for presenting information to the people whom we would inform about and interest in our schools. It seems, then, that one of the first things we must decide is which media we personally, in our situation, would most like to try to use and then concentrate our efforts upon using them. Certainly, one of the important features in determining which media shall be used is our previous experience and training. This should not, however, be a limiting factor, because men who are smart enough to be school administrators are smart enough to develop ability in the use of media which are at first strange to them. There are many sources of help. Good books on journalism can be purchased for a nominal sum so that they may be studied in one's spare time. In nearly every community there are radio personnel who will help with problems related to the dissemination of news through the local radio station. If speech is a problem, practically every school administrator has the friendly assistance of some staff member who is well trained in speech to help overcome any difficulties along this line. There are, of course, those in our profession of school administration who have no ideas of or about how to proceed with the dissemination of information. These who are really honest are not hopeless cases, though, because they can get some good ideas by reading the professional literature, especially the professional magazines and books. By circularizing other members of the profession who are in jobs very similar

to theirs, they can get a lot of good ideas which may be adapted to their own situation.

We are, therefore, face to face with these facts. There are ways (or ways can be found) for getting information to the people of our communities. The people of the community are smart enough to be trusted with all the information you can get for them. Information given to the public should be made as interesting as possible; but regardless of whether it is interesting or not, get the information to the public. Do not try to cover just the good part of your program, the successful part, but admit the weaknesses, needs, and problems which exist in your situation. Giving the public all news both good and bad builds confidence that you are an honest person whom they can believe when the chips are down. When they see that you believe in them enough to tell them the whole truth, they will believe in you enough to give your ideas an honest treatment in their minds; and they will share their ideas with you. This may be hard on your ego, but it will certainly be good for your professional growth and health.

Let me state again that there has been entirely too much effort given to presenting the people only that part of the news which we want them to have instead of all there is. Remember that information includes not only something that has happened or something worth bragging about, but more, the things which are going to happen, what should happen, and how you need the help of the community to make them a success.

We have long been interested in publicizing our school. Probably there is no phase of a principal's work which has been of greater interest. We have, therefore, tried a great deal to think up ideas which might be used to present the school to our community, ways to increase the community's awareness of the school's services, plans, and needs. We have striven to develop a feeling among the citizens of our community that they are partners in the realization of the school's potentialities as well as recipients of the benefits. For two reasons I would like to tell about some of the ideas we have used. *First*, we hope you will want to try some of them. *Second*, seeing that we have had courage (or fool-hardiness) enough to try such ideas, you will try some of your own ideas which you have not so far dared to tackle.

USE OF SCHOOL PICTURES

Some years ago, thinking that people would be interested in seeing pictures of school activities and of our school in action, I approached the photographer who makes the pictures for our yearbook and asked him if he would like to co-operate with me in planning a series of pictures which would be displayed in the windows of the shops in our business district. These pictures would show students and teachers in action in learning situations. In spite of the fact that this man ordinarily received from one to three dollars for each trip which he makes to take pictures, he was interested as a citizen in doing his part to help

bring the school to the community in a good light and volunteered to make the pictures in situations in our school which we pointed out to him as those areas which we wished to put before the public. This program was started in the spring of the year, and, in all, only about fifty or sixty pictures were used. Our plan was that we would ask eight of the merchants to allow us to place pictures in their show windows and that a new picture would be put in each week. Since these pictures were used in widely separated locations, we simply rotated them, adding a new picture each week at the station number one and moving each of the pictures up one station. When the pictures of this series of displays were returned, they were moved to a large display board which was kept in the local Chamber of Commerce office. There again, each time one picture was added, the one that had been up the longest was taken down so that there was not an entirely new display each week, but something new was added to attract the attention of people passing by.

Not a single one of the merchants in whose windows these displays were put were asked for the space. I simply went to their shops and told them about our display program, and when ready to leave I said that I must get out and look for the rest of the places in which the displays were to be made. Without exception, their reply was, "How about letting us have one of those in our window?" When they realized that a new picture would be in their window each week about the school and about the pupils of our school, with an appropriate caption, they were interested and wanted to have the pictures. They felt they would attract people to look at their windows. This left them with the feeling that we were doing them a favor by letting them use the pictures rather than putting us in the position of begging them for space. Incidentally, as you may have already guessed, we only went into the shops which we had already selected as the best possible places to display our school pictures, so that when we were through, the pictures were on display exactly where we wanted them. Incidentally, also, these merchants who had the nicest, best-kept windows in town (already) were glad to give us the space, even though we warned them that it might be some trouble to change the pictures each week.

This program also provided an opportunity for pupils to contribute to their school, for a committee of students were in charge of and responsible for moving the pictures each week. One of our school engineers helped with the program by building the small easels on which the eight-by-eleven-inch prints were displayed. It may be of interest to know why a program of this type was discontinued when it provided such a good opportunity for many of the people in our business district to see pictures of school activities. In the first place, the photographer who had first volunteered to help with this project moved away and there was no one for hire who was interested in making the pictures for us for nothing. This should not be too much of a problem, however, for most boards of education would realize the value of such a program of school publicity so that they would be willing to meet the cost of taking such pictures.

Later on, the idea came to me that the pictures of the school activities might be much better presented if the local paper could be induced to print them and publish appropriate textual material describing the activities portrayed in the pictures. This has been done during the past year. Usually five or six pictures are taken of each department and the head teacher in that department writes the material to describe the pictures and the school program of which these pictures are examples. This has been far more beneficial because these pictures and the accompanying descriptive material have gotten into all the homes of the community through the daily paper. This year our editor, E. L. Dale, of the *Carthage Evening Press*, has given us six pages of such coverage and has paid for the taking of the pictures in addition to printing them. It seems entirely possible that any editor would know that news about schools (especially news in which there are pictures of school children) is the kind that builds circulation, because Mom and Dad will read the paper pretty carefully if they think there is a possibility that the next issue will have in it a picture of Mary or Bill. So much for an experiment which started out as a window display of students in our school in learning situations and ended up as a newspaper public feature which did the same job but did it better. This is a job which could be done in any community and which would provide an opportunity for continued publicity of school learning possibilities.

Let us consider some of the possibilities of using the local newspaper by describing ways in which we have gotten results from the use of our local newspaper. Probably you may have become interested in trying some of them and in making improvements on the same. Our first attempt at a program of newspaper coverage of school activities and of information about the school was in news articles for publication in the local newspaper. It is a good idea to write these up so that they could be set up without too much effort in checking and proofreading them. It should be understood, however, that the newspaper may rewrite the facts you have given them. This may be essential to their publication in order that they may fit the space available. Such news items to be of any value should cover all phases of the school program. Your news or public relations calendar will help you plan so that the news coverage is broad in its scope, covering all phases of the school program. Probably there is no better means of publicizing school activities than these relatively short news items. Probably the most important job to do in making such news items cover all phases of a school program is to make every teacher a reporter for her part of the school program. Just as certainly all of this information should be routed through someone who is responsible for the whole program. This is a good idea for two reasons: it prevents shoddy, unsuitable material getting into the papers or getting the editor's refusal; and, when the person in charge of the program finds out that there is very little news coming in, he can get busy and find out why the other staff members are not interested enough in the information program to furnish material about their activities.

This person doesn't need to be someone especially employed as a public relations officer; he may be any interested staff member who can be spared from other extracurricular assignments. We are still in that dark age here in our school where we expect every teacher to accept at least one extracurricular sponsorship assignment, where most of us take pride in the fact that we enjoy our work so much that it isn't hard work to do a lot more than we are paid for; so this does not represent too great a problem. Someone, and in my opinion it should be the principal or superintendent, should be reading the paper every day to see that there is continuous coverage of the school program. So much for the short news item about school activities and the school program.

We made an attempt to supplement the news items appearing in our daily paper through a personal column which I wrote for our daily paper. This was written on a three-days-per-week basis and was to be printed on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday of each week. This venture started off well and should have been really worth while if I had been a bit sharper at writing. The editor of our local newspaper gave me a good place on the editorial page for this column. In order that he would have plenty of time to get these articles set up, I, almost from the start, presented him on Friday with all copy for the coming week. This is a desirable thing to do, because it can then be set up at such a time as to avoid the rush hours when current news must be handled. Professionally, using this would be an excellent means of passing on school information from the principal's or superintendent's viewpoint to the people of the community, if the superintendent or principal were enough of a journalist to make such a column interesting and real. My experience was that quite frequently other information in our local paper was of such interest and quality that I began to find that my column was being left out and that led me before long to quit writing it. All in all, I wrote it three times each week for about fifteen or sixteen weeks before realizing that it would not be of any sound value unless I could have some kind of assurance that it would be published on the same day of each week and that it would be placed in practically the same location of the paper each time. No one should let the fact that my experience with this idea was unsuccessful keep them from trying this idea. Long-range planning and continuous personal criticism of one's program would make this an excellent means of news dissemination. Even better than the tri-weekly column would be one which might be presented daily.

The newspaper is an excellent means and has been well used for providing the public with periodic reports about the whole school program. Such reports have been tried in the newspapers from the standpoint of the administrator, school board, and pupils. Some method should be planned to collect news from all areas of the school. Such a device would have to be planned to fit the school in which it is used. An example of the form which is distributed to all school personnel in the Springfield Public School, Springfield, Missouri,

to encourage their turning in news to the public relations office is described below.

One of the essential elements to keep in mind in newspaper publicity according to our philosophy is that preference should be given to the newspaper when you want to write something about the schools into the records. Once it has been published there, it stands forever afterwards, available as evidence. This makes the newspaper an especially fine means of publishing enrollment figures, cost, program, plans, regulations, objectives, and financial reports of all kinds. While it is outside the area of our experience, it seems that decisions of the board of education might be made a matter of public record by their publication in the newspapers. While we have tried to show how news items, pictorial presentation of feature articles about various phases of the school program, and the personal column can be used as means of putting the school program before the public, certainly, this should not be considered an exhaustive treatment of the subject. The school administrator should be constantly seeking new ways to use this great, public-interested medium for taking the school news into the homes of the community every day.

USE OF THE RADIO

Several years ago, something new was added to our community—a local radio station. The members of our school staff immediately sensed the possibilities of using the radio as a means of carrying the school's message to the public. Our first thought was that the part of our school which would have the greatest drawing power would be the students. Before long there had been formed in our school a radio club and plans had been made to present a weekly radio program, thirty minutes in length. The students were to be in charge of this effort. Preparation of every phase of the program was to be their responsibility, including writing the program, collection of material, rehearsals, and production.

While we felt that our speech classes were very helpful in producing our weekly radio program, the sponsor wasn't the speech teacher but another of our staff members who was greatly interested in the possibility of serving the youth who took part in such an effort. She felt that a student radio program would provide many growth opportunities which were not then a part of the regular school program. In spite of the fact that this teacher found the preparation, program, and production necessary to producing a worth-while radio program to be a rather burdensome job, requiring several hours of extra work each week, she continued as its sponsor for five years.

While this is a discussion of public relations from the standpoint of the school administrator, it seems that this is a good place to say that, like many other public relations efforts, the student radio program offers an opportunity for student participation with consequent educational benefits. Surely this was the opinion of our sponsor over the five-year period in which she worked with the production of *High School Hi-Lites*, our weekly radio program. Although this

was a student program, it represented a wonderful opportunity to inform people about the school and the best opportunity in the world to show off our pupils.

The guidance of a devoted sponsor who is willing to give quite a bit of time to such a project is essential to its success. Such teachers can be found on every school staff.

Another possibility which we have explored the past two years has been that of having the pupil radio program to be more closely related to the speech and dramatic classes in our school. While all school pupils may take part in the radio program each week, there being no rule forbidding participation or limiting it, there is a growing tendency for more and more of the work to be done by the speech and dramatics classes. Incidentally, our speech teacher has taken over the sponsorship of the pupil radio production these past two years. Her schedule has been reduced somewhat in order that she might have time for this. We feel that the educational value of such a program justifies our doing this. In addition to this pupil radio program, the school administrator has used our radio station to help solve our problems.

Year before last, because we felt that there were people who would be reached through the radio who would not take time to read the school news articles in the paper, we asked permission of the local radio station to use a fifteen-minute radio program about school problems each week. This radio program was something of a newsletter as it detailed plans, activities, philosophy, programs, needs, and problems of our school. Soon after having started this weekly radio program, which was presented on Tuesday night of each week, we realized that people would have difficulty in forming the habit of looking for and listening to this program because its occurrences were so widely separated. In spite of the fact that we felt that once a week was not often enough, this program was continued throughout the year.

The fact that our philosophy concerning getting information to the public demanded that we make this effort continuous led us last year to use a daily radio program over our local radio station, KDMO. During the summer I was approached by the program manager of our local radio station asking if we could continue our weekly radio program which had been used the year before during the school term. My reply to this was that I felt once each week was not often enough to secure an audience which habitually listened to the program and that I would like to plan a daily radio program of about ten minutes in length in which school news and school-related matters might be presented. I explained to him that I felt that some favorable time should be given to this program which experience had shown to be one in which a large number of people were listening. His suggestion was that 8:30 in the morning would be the best time immediately following the morning weather report. He felt that there were more people who listened regularly to their station at this time who were the people whom I wished to contact than at any other time in the day. While writing and making a daily radio broadcast is a job that sometimes

becomes tiresome and at times even burdensome, it is our feeling that this has been one of the most rewarding efforts we have ever made.

Here are a few suggestions which have come out of our experience which might be of help to those who would like to try such a daily program. Usually, programs can be tape recorded, two or three at a time, so that it is not necessary for the school administrator or members of the school staff who are doing the program for a given day to be away from their work exactly at the time the program is being given.

The fact that you do or do not have a tape recorder should not enter into this. Even if you do have a tape recorder, your broadcast tapes should be made on the same recorder which will be used to play them back. Small differences in speed of the recorder and play-back machines may greatly influence the quality. In case it is very unhandy to make your recordings at the station, get the station engineer to synchronize the speed of your recorder with that of the station play-back. To avoid trouble, the time for recording should be a definitely scheduled time. Radio stations are run as a business. They are glad to make a place on their schedule for you to record, but they are not going to make exceptions to that schedule very pleasantly. The fact that your day is full is not a reason for refusing to try. Most radio stations are open until eleven or twelve at night, and your recording can usually be scheduled then. Incidentally, my mid-week time was between nine and ten o'clock P.M. on Wednesday night.

Secondly, a definite time should be planned in one's schedule so that something can be done on the program every day. Usually, in our office the programs were written between 4:30 and 5:00 P.M. each day. This was a good time for us because the students and teachers had gone home by that time and there was a chance for an uninterrupted period of work. Occasionally I found that, in writing one program, I thought of ideas for another. Now some might prefer to make notes on these and write them up at a later time, but usually, when we were fortunate enough to have two ideas to develop, these were written up the same day.

Some 900 to 1,200 words are needed for a program of from eight to ten minutes. Certainly, those of us who are not accustomed to reading radio scripts should try to read slowly and distinctly rather than to imitate some great news reporter who rattles off from 200 to 225 words per minute. The personnel of the station from which our broadcasts were made were kind enough to let us play back our recordings so that we could criticize our techniques. When needs had been discovered, we were able to get help from our speech teacher in correcting these. Incidentally, while this program wasn't started as a means of speech development for the administrator, I feel that one of the great personal achievements in it for me was the improvement of my ability to speak. Certainly, the amount of ability one has should not be used as an excuse for not trying such an idea as this, because inevitably your ability will improve as you

go along with a program of this kind. I felt a bit silly trying some of the exercises our speech teacher recommended, but they were worth while from a quality-improvement standpoint. A second great value of this type of effort is that one is forced to study constantly the school program and to keep up with every phase in order that he may find material to use for the daily radio programs. The value of this practice of keeping the school uppermost in one's mind is obvious.

In this radio program, as in any other type of news coverage, the school administrator should bend over backward to give the people all the facts. Whether you want them to know it or not, the people of our school communities are too smart to think that everything is perfect in our schools. They might as well have your side of the story about these problem areas and not just that of those who are trying to injure the schools. Giving the people both the good and bad side of the school news also develops confidence on their part in you as their representative; it tends to get them ready to help you meet these problems. They are made cognizant of them and start thinking about how they can be solved.

There are many sources of information for such a program, and all should be used. In our effort last year these were some of the sources of program material which we discovered: (1) the difficulty of the athletic program gate receipts meeting the expenditures; (2) a review of magazine articles about schools and school programs from professional magazines, such as the *School Review* and from non-professional and non-school magazines as the *Saturday Evening Post*; (3) relations between our school and the rural schools of this school community; (4) recreational activity and jobs for the summer for youth; (5) vocational guidance talks by the local Rotary Club to high-school pupils; (6) enrollment planning for the coming year; (7) Boy Scout Week programs and news about the Scouting program locally, coupled with a publicizing of the Scouting program and its ideals; (8) pupil guidance plans for all four years of high school; (9) the accrediting agencies and their relationship to our school and pupils; (10) general achievement tests given by our schools and their results; (11) needs and opportunities related to different phases of our school program. (A good idea in this relation is to have the head teachers in each department make a talk about their department and how the subjects in it contribute to a pupil's education.); (12) review of articles on mental health, trying to point out ideas which would be of value to parents for their personal mental health and for helping them improve the mental health of their children; (13) school clubs and organizations. (In these we tried to point out the contributions which these organizations may make to a pupil's educational development.); (14) programs about the school calendar, at least once or twice each month in order to bring people up to date concerning events which were to take place in the near future so that they would be able to attend those in which they were interested; (15) agencies opposed to the public schools.

There is one matter which anyone contemplating a program of this kind should keep in mind and that is that the Federal Communications Commission demands that any radio station give the other side an opportunity to speak their views. I do not mention this in order to try to keep school administrators from fighting those agencies which oppose them, but because I feel that when you do start getting personal on the radio, you had better be ready for a fight. In brief, be prepared for battle or else don't start criticizing organizations or people. Here and now might be a good place to say that, if one works hard enough trying to present the positive side of the program, it will not be necessary to use too much of such program time for taking offense. Frankly, it is my opinion that most of this is of little value, anyway.

Several of our programs during the year were devoted to telling the people about services which are being rendered our school by community agencies such as the Rotary Club, the Kiwanis, the Chamber of Commerce, the Junior Chamber of Commerce, *etc.* At other times we presented facts to the people about school conditions from the standpoint of enrollments, courses, teacher shortages, and other general school problems, from the local, state, and national viewpoint. Another good source of program material is talking about youth service organizations which are active in the community, such as the work done by the county agent's office in helping with 4-H Clubs. This is an especially good public relations subject in a community like ours where so many of our pupils are from the rural areas. When they are sold on their activities in the 4-H Club or in other service organizations, they appreciate knowing that you understand what they are trying to do and feel that you approve of their work. As I have mentioned before, the Boy Scouts and the Girl Scouts are good youth service organizations for program material. The Educational Policy Commission's publications furnish subject matter which should be passed on to your community. Last winter, two of our programs were a review of the Educational Policies Commission report on moral and spiritual values in the schools. Services offered by the school are always a good source of program material. For example, last winter, we were able to start a program of adult education in our school. Several of our daily radio programs discussed plans, successes, and progress of this program. Any type of service rendered the public by the schools is always a good subject to talk to the people about, for certainly there is no harm in everyone knowing about what you are doing and trying to do for the community. In this regard, we talked several times to the people about our plans and hopes for the school even though we knew that some of these may never be realized. Yet it is good to keep the public thinking about how great their school could be.

The National Parent-Teacher magazine often contains articles which should be mentioned to parents and a resumé of them given. Last winter, I found that these were conducive to the encouragement of parents to come into our office and counsel about their children. When they found out that we were

interested in their child's progress and willing to help them, they wanted an opportunity to talk to us about some of these matters which had been brought up in reviews of National Parent-Teacher magazine articles. Our intramural program and its services to a wide number of pupils in our schools was interesting to many. Special programs such as College Guidance Night, National Honor Society inductions, commencement, school plays, and athletic events also offer opportunities for developing programs which are worth talking about. This is one of the valuable outcomes of looking ahead toward talking about school programs, namely, that we will do more to make an event outstanding and unusual if we know that we will have an opportunity to tell our public about it, than we would if it were to go unnoticed.

Oftentimes we told people about features which were to be printed in our local newspaper about our school. When it was time for a series of pictures about certain phases of our school program to appear in the local paper, we tried to tell people about this a few days in advance so they would be sure not to miss it. The financial status of various school activity funds may well be discussed over the radio. It has been our policy, however, to publish financial statements as soon as possible after having read them over the air so that people will be able to study them in detail if they so desire. Another fact which we have tried to get before our public is that all of our accounts are audited by a certified public accountant and that they are always available for examination by any group accompanied by a certified public accountant. So far, no one has ever availed himself of this opportunity, but it has been very comforting several times when fault-finding individuals have attacked us to fall back on the fact that they have been invited to make such inspection. Please bear in mind, though, that anyone making such a statement should emphasize that it must be by a qualified person. The fact that a man is smart enough to find fault doesn't necessarily mean that he is smart enough to prove the same or that he should have materials turned over to him which he doesn't know how to evaluate. One thing which a person should keep in mind if he is a school administrator is that, when he is doing his radio program on a day-to-day basis, he should discuss areas related to his school and not get into areas where he has no responsibility. For example, as a high-school principal, I have tried to steer clear of any problems relating to the elementary schools or to the school administration as a whole and have tried to stick pretty closely to high-school related matters.

From time to time there have appeared articles in our state school magazine published by the office of the state school commissioner relating to school problems in Missouri. When these have been of general interest, I have discussed them with the people of our community. Even matters such as the principles of education should be presented to the people of the community from time to time during the year. This last year I did this through the review of an article which had been written by Dr. Harold C. Hunt for a professional

magazine. Anyone who has access to the 1918 edition of the Cardinal Principles of education could present a pretty good outline of what the public schools should teach and who should be set to thinking about this matter. The same can be said for *The Ten Imperative Needs of Youth*. Any programs for improvement of school services or increasing the school facilities make good subjects for radio programs. In this regard, the program serves as a means of acquainting people with what you feel the school really needs and with your plan for bringing about these needed improvements. Last year we worked on a written set of school policies. Our staff co-operated wholeheartedly in this venture. The public did not have a great deal of information about our school policies as our staff had developed them; so the radio program gave us an opportunity to inform the people of our community about our school policies. From time to time I use a program of school news. This news is collected from magazines such as the *Phi Delta Kappan*, the BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the NEA, the *Clearing House*, *School Review*, and other professional magazines.

This list is sufficient, I think, to show that there are plenty of program material possibilities to keep your daily radio program going. Let me warn you that there will be times when you will wish you had never started, but there will also be those days when you will be very, very thankful for your school radio program and for what it has done to help put the public solidly behind your school program.

You do not have to carry the entire load of this alone. I think that during the coming year I shall share this radio program load more with our staff members than has been done this past year. Every school of even moderate size has many staff members who can take a good portion of the school program. Our experience is that they are very willing to help. As I have mentioned above, the head teacher in each department has from time to time given radio presentations about his subjects. At one time when it was necessary for me to be away for over a week, the staff members seemed very pleased to have the opportunity of carrying on the daily radio program.

THE NEWSLETTER

There are those who will neither listen to school news on the radio nor read it in the papers. Searching for some means to reach these people and trying to make sure that all of the parents of high-school pupils got at least some school news, we devised our school newsletter. There is a certain amount of value in such a publication. It keeps all of the staff informed about what is going on in the school. It is surprising sometimes how little some of the staff members know about what is going on in the general school program or in other divisions of the school. Such understanding is essential if teachers are to work together with a feeling of friendliness. The newsletter helps to carry information about

this phase of the school program to all members of the school staff so that they have an opportunity to know what others are doing.

Then there is the matter mentioned above of making certain that all of the parents of our high-school pupils have an opportunity to receive some school news each month. What better way could there be to get school news to the parents than to send it out by the high-school pupils in the form of a newsletter? While all may not make the same reaction to receiving facts about the school that I have, it has been my experience that anything my boy brings home from school is looked over pretty carefully. I am pretty sure, too, that this interest is due to the fact that he brings it home rather than the mailman. This reasoning leads us to believe that better results are obtained by sending newsletters home by the pupils than when they are mailed. We, therefore, have each one of our pupils take a copy of the monthly newsletter to their parents on the date of its publication.

In addition to this distribution, we have secured permission to place one copy of our newsletter at the plates at the meetings of the Rotary Club and Kiwanis Club each month. We also send out 50 to 100 copies by direct mail each month. While it may not be worth while, it has seemed to us that, if these are to be opened and read, they should be hand addressed and sent first class. We therefore, address ours by hand and send them with a three-cent stamp because it seems probable to us that this will increase the likelihood of their being read. We also include our return address on the outside of the letter.

Collecting information to be used in the newsletter usually requires three kinds of consideration. One type looks back to see how we have been getting along and comments on the success of our school program. Another looks forward toward our plans for the future and expresses needs for co-operation. A third type is related to informing the public about the possibilities, plans, and program of our school. Everything is collected that can possibly be used in the newsletter. Then when we are ready to make up the letter, we choose the best from the very adequate supply.

We have tried two or three different ways of collecting material for the newsletter. At first we kept a file envelope, and when something came up which we thought would make a good item for the newsletter, we made a note about it and put it in this file. We also tried keeping a small notebook in which notes could be jotted down about newsletter material possibilities as they occurred to us. This latter method probably has an advantage over the former in that the small notebook can always be carried in your pocket where it is readily available. Actually, the school administrator will have little trouble in getting enough material; he will probably find that the problem which must be solved is determining which items shall be included and which must be omitted. In other words, there is always more material than you can use in a monthly newsletter.

While we have not been able to try the idea yet, it seems to me that it would be desirable to publish our newsletter in the local daily paper once each week so that, in addition to going into the homes which it now reaches, it could go into some four or five thousand other homes. Of course, it would be more difficult to prepare a weekly newsletter, but the advantage of having it published and distributed as a part of the local daily paper would more than repay one for the effort required in writing it. Probably copies of the newsletters might well be given to the local radio station so that they could use it on the day that it appeared in the paper. As I have said above, we have not tried this idea of publishing the newsletter in the paper as yet, but in all likelihood the parents would not read it in this form as well as they do when it is brought home by their children from school.

The advantages of more frequent publications of the newsletter would be numerous. For example, suppose we wished to call the attention of our school public to an article currently appearing in a popular magazine. If we really wanted them to read it, the more nearly the time of calling it to their attention was to the time of its appearance, the greater the likelihood of their reading it. Frequent publication of the newsletter would also do great things for the school calendar. People aren't going to keep school events listed as a part of their personal calendar. Frequent reminders just prior to occurrence would increase the probability of their remembering. Since school events are important, one copy of the school newsletter could well be used at the beginning of each semester to give the school calendar. This should be followed by presentation of parts of the calendar in each and every succeeding newsletter. There will be a great deal of variation in the contents of the school newsletter, but the calendar should always be included.

It will probably occur to many schoolmen reading this that many of the newsletters would be thrown away when distributed by the children. Each school would have to work out its own ideas about preventing this, but we have tried to distribute them at a time when there is the least likelihood of their being thrown away or lost before being taken home; namely, just before noon. We usually put out a sufficient number of copies so that the teachers can hand them out just before the school is dismissed at noon. With regard to this program, one must be careful to remember to tell the teachers when they are to be handed out and to get the copies to them in plenty of time for distribution. We usually put them in the teachers' mail boxes so that they can be picked up before nine o'clock on the day they are to be distributed. This is not the best time for distribution of the newsletters in the case of the children who live in the country and who are not going home until school is out for the day, but the distribution is best made at this time in our case because there is no other time when so many are best served by it.

Once having started the newsletter, it is almost imperative that you continue it. People will soon take it for granted that it is a regular part of the school pro-

gram and that publication of it is a service which you are paid to perform. It would be my advice, therefore, that anyone contemplating its publication should think seriously about the difficulty inherent in continuing it. The newsletter may take many forms, and its cost will vary greatly.

In an effort to find out what public relations devices schoolmen are using in Missouri, last winter I contacted some 120 principals and superintendents. Among the responses were several newsletters. The richer communities printed a four-page paper on good stock. This type of newsletter, if published monthly, would cost from \$50 to \$75 per issue. We, on the other hand, have kept our cost down by using a mimeographed letter at a cost of not over five dollars per issue. Certainly, the newsletter should be as attractive as possible. Just as certainly, and more important, this is a splendid public relations device, worth while using.

There are many other ways of keeping the story of your school before your public so that they know, understand, and are willing to help you when you need their assistance. If you are really interested in service to your community, any type of information-dissemination device is worth while. There are always those, of course, who hold to the philosophy that the less the public knows, the better off the schools are. In one of our staff meetings last winter, one of our most capable teachers, after quite an impassioned appeal for help with the public relations program had been made, said that she felt that too much was being done and that things were better when the people didn't have so much information about the schools. This is a policy matter that must be decided by each school. Surely, most school administrators want the kind of program which is so vital that the people of the community will be proud of it and willing to help promote it. Certainly, also, a good public relations program is one of the strongest stimuli that can influence a school leader to do his best. If he knows that he is going to keep the public informed about everything in his school program, he will work hard to make that program one of which he will be proud.

Facing the Criticisms Locally

PETER F. OLIVA

THE public schools in recent years have undergone a barrage of criticisms both justified and unjustified. The issues have left the realm of the educational journals and have been debated in the magazines of general interest. The public's attention has been focused on education as never before. With the recent series of articles by Whitman in *Collier's* magazine, the criticisms against public education have been placed in distorted fashion before the mass-circulation audience. But a glance at the letters to the editor (*Collier's*, March 19, 1954), in response to the first article of the series, demonstrates forceably that local administrators and faculties have a tremendous job to do in interpreting education to the public. That present efforts to answer the type of criticism voiced in a number of recent books and periodicals have been inadequate can readily be seen by the number of persons who have seized upon these one-sided, poorly sampled practices as "scholarly" proof of the evils of modern education.

The time has come when the local administrator must present calmly, logically, and forcefully convincing argument and demonstrable proof that many of the criticisms are inaccurate and untrue. Talk, impatience, and opinion must give way to patient explanation. Any research findings available, both locally and nationally, need to be presented in an intelligible fashion to the patrons of the school. It is the administrator's duty to ferret out these data, make them available and explain them to the public, in non-technical, everyday language. Toward this end is this article directed by offering (1) a number of common criticisms, (2) suggested rebuttal, (3) suggested action to be taken by the local administrator, and (4) suggested references to articles, books, and studies which can be cited to support the administrator's position.

ISSUE 1: *The schools are not teaching the three R's.*

THE CRITICISM: Youth of today cannot read, write, spell, nor use English well. Youth of today are not as proficient in the fundamentals as were the children of yesteryear. Some of today's boys and girls do not even know the alphabet. Secretaries are unable to file letters correctly, for example. Youth are unprepared for college because they have not mastered the basic skills. Modern education is not concerned with teaching the three R's.

REBUTTAL: Modern education is most certainly concerned with teaching the three R's. Youth of today read, write, spell, and use English as well as or

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better than youth of yesterday. The schools of today use different methods of teaching the three R's. Nevertheless, the basic skills are as important in the curriculum of today's school as ever before. The older generation is dreaming of the "good old days" which existed only in their misty memories, when they lay claim to better accomplishment in the fundamentals.

WHAT TO DO

1. Give a standardized achievement test in each of the basic skills. This will measure the achievement level of pupils in your school against national norms.
2. Compare the results made on achievement tests (or school grades) with test results (or school grades) made by students in your school years ago.
3. In the event of weakness in any of the skills, institute remedial programs.
4. Differentiate and enrich the offerings for the college preparatory group by giving them more assignments in research, composition, and formal grammar.

WHAT TO READ

1. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Forces Affecting American Education*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1953, Chap. V. (See also references in this chapter).
2. J. Raymond Gerberich, "The First of the Three R's," *The Phi Delta Kappan*, March, 1952.
3. Vincent J. Glennon and C. W. Hunnicutt, *What Does Research Say About Arithmetic?* Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1952.
4. Research Division, *The Three R's Hold Their Own at Midcentury*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1951.
5. A. H. Flury and W. J. Ehrenkrook, "What Are Some Successful Public Relations Practices Relative To Attacks on Education?" *THE BULLETIN OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS*, Vol. 38, No. 202, April 1954, pp. 178-191.

ISSUE 2: *Modern educators do not co-operate with parents.*

THE CRITICISM: Parents are not invited into the schools. The "experts" believe that they know it all and do not want interference from parents. The school takes the child completely away from the home. Those responsible for the education of the young pay little attention to the wishes of parents.

REBUTTAL: On the contrary, modern educators have insisted that a high degree of co-operation between the home and the school is necessary. The child cannot be fully understood without knowing his family background. The newer term "community school" has evolved because leaders have realized that the school and the community cannot effectively work separately for the education of the young. It has historically been the dyed-in-the-wool classicist who has felt that in imparting subject matter he needs no assistance from parents. In truth, modern educators, placing the child before the subject matter, have been responsible for:

1. Involving parent and non-parent groups in the affairs of the school.
2. Establishing lay advisory committees.

3. Building up the Parent-Teachers Association.
4. Insisting on home visits on the part of teachers.
5. Using citizens as resource persons in the classrooms.
6. Encouraging parents to visit schools.
7. Informing parents about problems of the pupil and the school.
8. Inaugurating parent-teacher conferences.
9. Expanding adult education programs.

WHAT TO DO

1. Develop a mimeographed or printed information bulletin sent from the administrator's office to all residents of the school district. This bulletin would contain items of interest concerning the school, types of information not ordinarily found in the press, discussion of changes being considered in the school program, and questions of policy.
2. Channel public relations releases through an enterprising faculty member, providing him with time to prepare releases for the press, radio, and TV.
3. Encourage all teachers to attend PTA regularly.
4. Provide school time for home visits by teachers.
5. Make use of the technique of "Open House" to get parents of pupils to visit the school.
6. Present an interesting and informative program during the annual American Education Week.
7. Make the school building available to citizens groups.
8. Institute an "Open Door" policy by which parents may drop into the school to discuss their problems fully, to inspect the building, to talk to teachers, and to visit classes.

WHAT TO READ

1. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Forces Affecting American Education*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1953. Chap. VI (On the backing of parent groups.)
2. Will French, J. Dan Hull, and B. L. Dodda, *American High School Administration*, New York: Rinehart, 1951, pp. 557-59, 602-12.
3. Florence B. Stratemeyer, H. L. Forkner, and Margaret G. McKim, *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947, pp. 406-31.
4. B. Othaniel Smith, William O. Stanley, and J. Harlan Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*, Yonkers, New York: World Book Company, 1950, pp. 648-72.
5. Frederick C. McLaughlin, "Control of Education in Public Schools," *Teachers College Record*, March, 1954, 293-300.
6. National Society for the Study of Education, *Citizen Co-operation for Better Public Schools*, 53rd Yearbook, Part I, Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1954.

ISSUE 3: *The schools cost too much.*

THE CRITICISM: The schools are too expensive. The programs attempt too much. There is too much waste. There are too many unnecessary expenditures. Teachers are overpaid.

REBUTTAL: Many persons for selfish reasons are quite content to provide an education for youth in the 20th century equivalent to an education for the 18th and 19th centuries. Times have changed. The educational needs of our citizens have changed. Society is more complex and requires a greater level of education to maintain our economy at a high standard of living.

We are, in fact, buying a cheap education for our youth. We spend annually more on alcohol, tobacco, and jewelry than we do on the education of our prime human resources, our boys and girls. For example, wholesale liquor sales in 1951 totalled \$4.6 billion while tobacco the same year brought \$2.5 billion. Wholesale jewelry sales in 1951 ran over \$760 million. From 1932 to 1951 the total percentage of our national income spent on education *decreased* according to the following figures:

<i>Date</i>	<i>National Income</i>	<i>Expenditure for Education</i>	<i>Percentage of Income Spent for Education</i>
1932	\$ 75,000,000,000	\$2,000,000,000	3.0
1947	226,000,000,000	3,419,000,000	1.5
1951	278,000,000,000	6,528,000,000	2.0

Finally, education is a good financial investment. The higher the level of education, the greater the productive power of the country. The greater the productive power, the higher the income. The higher the income, the greater the purchasing power. The greater the purchasing power, the higher the standard of living.

WHAT TO DO

1. Popularize the budget. Get local citizens to serve on a continuing budgetary advisory committee. Print or duplicate by other means attractive, understandable copies of the budget and distribute well in advance so that the public may be informed of expenses and needs. Make the reasons for the expenditures intelligible. Answer questions concerning the budget and the breakdown of the various categories.

2. Make the community aware of the value of education. The local administrator must be constantly ready to interpret the educational program at civic meetings and to interested individuals. Through his leadership the administrator should encourage faculty members to participate in explaining the values of education. Staff members can use charts, pictures, and other aids in explaining to citizens' groups (1) budgetary items, (2) the financial value of an education to the individual, locality, and state, and (3) the financial value of education for the nation.

3. Publicize testimonials on the value of education from tradesmen, businessmen, and professional persons.

WHAT TO READ

1. United States Chamber of Commerce, *Education Steps Up Living Standards*, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Chamber of Commerce.
2. John K. Norton, *Unfinished Business in American Education*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1946.
3. National Education Association, *Still Unfinished*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1948.

ISSUE 4: *The schools have gone anti-intellectual.*

THE CRITICISM: The school program has been "watered-down." There are too many "easy" courses. The "practical" courses have driven out the academic disciplines. There was a time when difficult courses were given which trained the mind. We have gotten away from Latin, modern languages, algebra, ancient history, and physics (required for all), the courses which developed the mind and character. The academic disciplines should not be neglected because they are needed for success in college and in life. There is too much emphasis on extracurricular activities and having fun instead of studying.

REBUTTAL: The school program has been expanded. It includes now the academic disciplines, vocational courses, general programs, and extracurricular activities. The academic disciplines are taught just as well to the college-bound students as ever before. However, they are not being required for all pupils since less than a third of the boys and girls from high school actually go to college. All students cannot and should not take the same type of educational program. A satisfactory program would comprise a general education of common learnings for all with a specialized program based upon the particular needs of the individual.

The academic disciplines do not develop the mind nor character any more than any other course well taught. Some of these courses have traditionally hidden behind the screen of "difficulty" as an excuse for poor teaching. Psychologists have renounced the old theory that the mind may be exercised or the character developed by certain academic disciplines. There have been many times when the academic disciplines have caused individuals to develop poor character traits and have driven boys and girls out of school.

The proposals for reverting to the academic disciplines for all, instead of for those who need them, would carry us back to the Latin Grammar School, which, with its trivium and quadrivium, was found lacking for education in an industrial society. These proposals seek to impose high standards of intellectual pursuits on all boys and girls, a feat utterly impossible for those in the low IQ brackets. There is such a condition among pupils as individual difference in intelligence, interest, reading ability, aptitude, *etc.* which must be considered in the program of today's school.

Extracurricular activities are now being considered "co-curricular," as a legitimate part of the whole program. Through a well-rounded extracurricular program, pupils gain added educational advantages of social experience, leader-

ship training, service, higher degree of motivation, and opportunities for self-expression. The school gains a high degree of student participation, democratic living, and teacher-pupil understanding in informal situations. Extracurricular activities represent but another way of meeting individual differences.

Further, it has been demonstrated that there is no relationship between the patterns of courses taken in high school and success in college. The success factor in college, as in life, rests in resourcefulness, initiative, and intelligence of the individual, not on the pattern of courses he had in high school or college.

WHAT TO DO

1. Explain the curriculums of the school to the people at PTA or other meetings. Show clearly the differences between the college preparatory course, the commercial, the homemaking, the industrial arts or agriculture courses, *et. al.* Explain guidance procedures for steering pupils into the appropriate courses.

2. Enrich the academic program of the college-bound students and hold them to "high standards."

3. Enter some bright students in competitions for scholarships. Publicize any successes the school has in attaining these scholarships.

4. Gain support for such innovations as driver education, family life, and marriage courses by polling parents to see if they approve before instituting the courses.

5. Follow up the alumni to see if they have been successful. Alumni columns in the papers can point out successes.

6. Demonstrate that the academic disciplines in your school normally have the bright pupils to begin with, that you do not have a cause-and-effect situation—that is, Latin does not make the bright pupil bright. He is bright to begin with.

7. Cite studies, such as those below, dealing with transfer value of courses, the pattern of courses as related to success in college, and the clientele of today's school.

8. Make an analysis of the student body in your school, considering socio-economic level, number of college bound, number preparing for specific vocations, and major interests and abilities.

9. Conduct a drop-out study to find out why pupils left school, which courses helped them most since they left school, and which courses have helped them least in life.

10. Analyze the student activities program to make sure you have a proper balance in types of activities, wide student participation, and an adequate number of activities without a surfeit of them.

WHAT TO READ

1. Sidney L. Pressey and Francis P. Robinson, *Psychology and the New Education*, New York: Harper, 1944, Chap. XVII (On transfer).

2. Wilford W. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*, New York: Harper, 1942 (On pattern of courses taken in high school and success in college).
3. Federal Security Agency, *Vitalizing Secondary Education*, Bulletin 1951, No. 3, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, Chap. 1 and 2, (On drop-outs and life adjustment education).
4. W. Lloyd Warner, Robert J. Havighurst, and Martin B. Loeb, *Who Shall Be Educated?* New York: Harper, 1944, (On the clientele of the school).
5. William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities*, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 2nd ed., 1952, pp. 75-83, (On "difficult" courses).
6. Paul E. Elicker. "How Good Are Our Schools?" *Collier's*, June 11, 1954, pp. 78-83.

ISSUE 5: *There is no discipline in the modern school.*

THE CRITICISM: Kids run the schools these days. Teachers need to take a firmer hand. More old-fashioned whippings would help. Children are asked, "What do you want to learn today?"

REBUTTAL: The pupils do not run the schools. True, they are encouraged to participate in setting goals of instruction and even school policies. But at no time does the administrator or teacher permit the youngsters to control the schools. No educator asks the students, "What do you want to study today?" If any persons are aware of the immaturity of youth, it is the modern educator who has studied child growth and development. The belief that pupils run the schools is a distortion of the democratic educational technique called "teacher-pupil planning." In this technique pupils are involved in *helping* to plan the program of *some* courses or of *some* phases of courses. However, the teacher never gives up his position as teacher nor turns planning entirely over to the students. The position of the teacher has changed from an expounder of subject matter to a guider of youth. Modern education believes that, through actual involvement in setting up goals of a program and the methods of obtaining those goals, the student learns better and retains his learning longer. He learns in addition to subject matter desirable attitudes and social skills.

In many cases, the most incorrigible students are those who are non-academic and who need a different type of program but who are placed in the strait-jacket of a strictly academic program in which they cannot hope to succeed. Here the curriculum is at fault, not the pupil.

Reversion to strict discipline and corporal punishment is often an excuse for inept teaching. Teachers have abandoned corporal punishment for exactly the same reason many parents have given up the practice. They have tried it and found it wanting. They realize that it simply does not work. Instead of beating rebelliousness out of a pupil, more often you beat it in. Instead of making the pupil do better school work, you make him resent school and do poorer work. Fear, like failure, does not motivate as well as approval and success. Fear destroys learning instead of enhancing it. Corporal punishment may correct surface behavior and eliminate symptoms, but it does not root out the causes of misbehavior. The modern teacher tries to seek out the causes of misbehavior

and correct the causes. Educators today realize that school should be a pleasant experience for youngsters.

WHAT TO DO

1. Invite parents into the school to look around in order to disprove the idea that the youngsters run the schools. Do not apologize for evidence of busy human beings at work. Explain why it is desirable for youngsters to move around, talk quietly, work in small groups, and go about their business instead of maintaining absolute silence in rows of desks bolted to the floor as in days gone by.

2. Show parents how disciplinary problems are handled through counseling, referral to specialized personnel, and punishment techniques.

3. Solicit parental co-operation in handling disciplinary problems.

4. Make sure your program includes many elements of student participation.

WHAT TO READ

1. Goodwin Watson, "Fresh Evidence on An Old Problem," *Child Study*, XXI, summer, 1944. (On permissiveness vs. strictness).

2. Robert P. Patterson, "The Scandal of Our District Attorneys," *This Week*, Jan. 13, 1952. (On leniency in penology).

3. George Sheviakov and Fritz Redl, *Discipline for Today's Children and Youth*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944.

4. F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dixon, *Management and the Worker*, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1939. (An account of the famous Western Electric researches).

5. Kurt Lewin, "Group Decision and Social Change," *Readings in Social Psychology*, edited by Theodore M. Newcomb and Eugene L. Hartley, New York: Henry Holt, 1947, pp. 330-44. (On involving members of a group).

ISSUE 6: *Modern marking, reporting, and promotion practices are bad.*

THE CRITICISM: Grading in the modern school is too easy. The modern schools are de-emphasizing competition. Competition is the way of life and should be learned in school. Students should be graded in relation to a high arbitrary passing mark. All those who score below this passing mark should be failed in the course, retained, or forced out of school. Students' averages should be ranked on a competitive basis, so as to show parents, students, and teachers how one student stands in relationship to other students in the class. Report cards are being abandoned. A-F or percentage grades are absolutely essential. Parents cannot tell what symbols like S and U mean. Too many youngsters are promoted. Testing is made too easy. Essay tests are being abandoned in favor of objective tests.

REBUTTAL: Marking, reporting, and promotion practices have changed considerably. Competition has been decreased in the sense of competition between individuals. Unfair competition between bright and dull students has little educative value. It is indeed strange that the "high standards" advocates would place all students in mental competition regardless of native ability, but would not dream of placing the physically handicapped in competition with the more

able athletes. Actually, in life situations the bright student will compete with the bright and the dull with the dull. Consequently, modern educators have attempted to get the student to compete with himself and with his past record. Marks are given in relation to the ability of the student, not on some mediocre arbitrary passing grade (which varies from 60-75 in different schools). The modern educator realizes that the slow learner cannot attain the arbitrary passing grade and this same grade is too low for the fast learners. Flexible standards instead of absolute standards are needed. *Satisfactory* and *Unsatisfactory* have come in as symbols in order to alleviate some of the pernicious effects of outdated marking systems. In a few schools report cards have been abandoned in favor of informal reports to the home and parent-teacher conferences.

Modern educators have tried to harm the youngsters as little as possible through the grading and promotion system. Like a number of other traditional gimmicks, the marking system has been used as a motivator, relieving the incompetent teacher of the necessity of motivating the pupils.

Efforts are constantly being made to change the marking system so as to minimize subjectivity of scoring. The percentage system, deceptively "objective," is the poorest, particularly for scoring essay-type tests. A teacher cannot honestly distinguish between a 91 per cent and a 92 per cent student in a particular subject. Essay tests are still in use in all schools, but for more limited purposes than in the past. They are used to test ability to write, organize material, and express thoughts clearly. They are not used exclusively to test achievement because their subjectivity of scoring and their poor sampling lead to gross errors. Studies show that different teachers mark the same essay answers with different scores. Even the same teacher will mark the same essay answers with different scores at different times of the day, week, or year. Too many extraneous items are permitted to enter into the grading of essay tests, such as length, style of writing, and personality of the pupil. Objective tests have been instituted because they sample the work of a course better and actually measure subject matter achievement more precisely than essay tests.

A higher percentage of students is promoted in modern schools. Promotions approximate 100 per cent. When it appears the student will profit academically or emotionally or socially from the next higher grade, he is promoted. We know that the retardation of a pupil rarely does him any good. Students, as a rule, learn no more the second time in a grade than they do the first. Usually retention discourages the pupil from continuing school.

Educators do not agree with the critics who maintain that competition is a natural, inevitable, all-pervasive aspect of our way of life or of all human beings. Co-operation is prevalent in our society. Co-operation is essential to the welfare of our society. Were this not so, there would be no society. It would be desirable if more of our citizens knew and practiced the skills of co-operation with their fellow beings.

WHAT TO DO

1. Thoroughly explain the marking, reporting, and promotion policies to the public.
2. Make no changes in these policies before you secure community approval.
3. Measure the achievement of pupils who have been retained to see if they make any progress a second time. See if the amount of progress made justifies the extra year or two in the same grade.
4. Set up an experiment on scoring of an English composition, a history paper, a science paper, and a mathematics paper by different teachers in each of these fields. Expect to find different grades assigned by the different teachers.
5. Admit parents in the planning of new report cards.
6. Demonstrate that there is inconsistency in marking systems as between schools and between teachers. Show how different teachers consider different items essential in assigning grades, hence the subjectivity.
7. Work out with your faculty a consistent marking policy.

WHAT TO READ

1. William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities*, 2nd ed., New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1952, Chap. 21 (On reliability and validity of teachers' grades. See also references in this chapter).
2. Fred E. Harris, *Three Persistent Educational Problems: Grading, Promoting, and Reporting to Parents*, Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Vol. XXVI, September, 1953, No. 1. (Entire booklet is excellent. Page 39 cites a drop-out study in Kentucky which shows the relationship between retention and dropping out of school).
3. William L. Wrinkle, *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, New York: Rinehart, 1947.

ISSUE 7: *There is not enough homework.*

THE CRITICISM: Children do not receive long enough nor hard enough nightly assignments. They go home at night without books and waste their time watching television, playing, or idling. They do not know how to study.

REBUTTAL: There is a definite trend to cut down the amount of homework in both the elementary and secondary schools. Educators are aware that unsupervised homework at home can produce poor study habits and wrong learnings. Modern teachers feel that growing youngsters are entitled to an eight-hour work day or less. Too, studies have shown that groups of youngsters who did not do homework systematically achieved as much as youngsters who did do homework systematically. Homework has been used as a major teaching device by poorly prepared teachers who would not know what to do during the class period the next day without having the pupils regurgitate the assignment of the previous night. Modern educators have insisted that more teaching be done during the school day. Health educators have pointed out the need for play and recreation for growing boys and girls after the school day. Finally, it has been discovered that a few minutes of study period supervised by the classroom

teacher during the class period is more effective than long periods of unsupervised homework at home with its distractions, lack of resources, and sometimes unfavorable environment.

WHAT TO DO

1. Re-arrange the schedule, lengthening periods if necessary to permit supervised study time during the class period.
2. Instruct each teacher to carry on continuous training in study habits in his course.
3. Set up an experiment with one group in a particular subject doing regular homework in the subject and another group in the same subject doing no homework, except in the class period. At the end of the term measure the achievement of both groups by means of standardized tests.

WHAT TO READ

1. Amy Selwyn, "No More Homework?" *This Week*, May 13, 1951.
2. William H. Burton, *op. cit.*, pp. 348-74.

ISSUE 8: *The schools are not teaching moral and spiritual values.*

THE CRITICISM: The schools are irreligious. Students are not being trained in moral and spiritual values.

REBUTTAL: The schools of today are attempting to teach moral and spiritual values in conjunction with the home and the church. Sectarian instruction cannot be taught in the public schools, where are found students from families of all faiths. Moral and spiritual instruction upon which all faiths can agree is being taught and emphasized in the schools. The schools regard the denominational instruction as a province of the home and the church.

WHAT TO DO

1. Get the faculty to study and decide on the moral and spiritual values they want their students to achieve, the sanctions they wish to use, and the methods of teaching these values.
2. Teach about the various religious faiths without indoctrinating the pupils in any one religious faith.
3. Give a course in ethics as part of a common learnings program or group guidance program.
4. Co-operate with the churches in assisting pupils with problems.

WHAT TO READ

1. Educational Policies Commission, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1951.
2. William C. Bower, *Moral and Spiritual Values in Education*, Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, 1952.
3. E. B. Chaffe and W. H. Ivins, "How Can the School Program Contribute to a Better Appreciation and Acceptance of Moral and Spiritual Values?" *THE BULLETIN OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS*, Vol. 37, No. 194, April 1953, pp. 16-21.

ISSUE 9: *The schools, teachers, and textbooks are "Red," or at least, "Pink."*
THE CRITICISM: The schools are teaching our children leftist ways. They are upholding the welfare state. The textbooks criticize free enterprise. Controversial issues like socialized medicine, religion, civil rights, and UNESCO are being studied by the pupils!

REBUTTAL: It is ridiculous to accuse our conservative teachers and schools of socialistic or communistic leanings. Criticisms often come from pressure groups in the community which want the schools to teach only their points of view. One difficulty is the fact that words like "liberal," "pinko," "egghead," "fuzzy-brain," and "red" have become emotionally charged epithets to hurl at the heads of persons whose ideas differ from one's own. Thus, critical analysis of free enterprise becomes a communistic undertaking. Criticism against the methods of Congressional committees investigating communism is regarded as subversive. A study of labor unions becomes interpreted as a threat to big business. Consideration of the United Nations takes on ominous tones to the super-patriot nationalists. Some communities must avoid the study of communism, segregation, and local politics. Teachers in some cases do not dare stick their necks out on any issue for fear of reprisal. Yet, we would turn out of our schools students competent to deal with the problems of our society! As for subversive textbooks, nonsense. Detailed reading of the texts will show that American publishers are anxious to avoid controversies and sell copies.

WHAT TO DO

1. Permit the public to read and examine all textbooks. *Insist* that the critics of textbooks spend the time reading the books.
2. Co-operate with citizens groups who support the schools.
3. Do not capitulate to pressure groups. Take your case to the people by press, radio, and TV.
4. Show how pressure groups have harmed the schools in other cities.

WHAT TO READ

1. William Hard, "Let's Abolish False Labels," *Reader's Digest*, April, 1952, pp. 29-31.
2. Robert M. Hutchins, "Afraid to Teach," *Look Magazine*, March 9, 1954.
3. Benjamin Fine, "The Truth About Schoolbook Censorship," *Parents*, December, 1953.
4. John H. Haefner, "Battle of the Books," *NEA Journal*, April, 1953.
5. Ernest O. Melby, *American Education Under Fire*, New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1951.
6. William E. Spaulding, "Can Textbooks Be Subversive?" *The Educational Record*, XXXIV, October, 1953, pp. 291-304.

The answers to criticisms appear to lie in (1) good public relations, (2) an informed public, (3) participation of citizens in the affairs of the school, (4) local research, (5) national research, (6) informed school personnel, and (7) educational leadership.

Ideas for Parent-Teacher Association Organizations

HAMILTON C. GILLESPIE

HAVE you recognized a problem in getting new patrons integrated into and active in the affairs of your parent-teacher organizations? Each year, as in any other large high school, Strong Vincent High School acquires several hundred patrons whose pupils are entering the school for the first time. Most of these new patrons need to be given a special invitation to attend parent-teacher meetings. They need to feel welcome. These patrons must also be made to feel that it is important, for them and for their children, that they become active in the parent-teacher organization. One way to interest new patrons is to set up a meeting in September which is designed to attract these new members. Such a meeting was planned by the Strong Vincent Parent-Teachers Association under the leadership of Mrs. Harold Ogden, President, and her Executive Committee in September, 1951.

This first parent-teacher association meeting was to be a dessert meeting, which was to be held in the school cafeteria. Special invitations were sent to all parents of pupils new to Strong Vincent High School, inviting them to attend the dessert meeting. The announcement told these parents that the principal, the assistant principals, and the boys' and girls' counselors would be on hand to meet them. They were advised that the program of the school would be discussed for their benefit. On the evening of the meeting, about one hundred of the new patrons were in attendance. After generous helpings of good coffee and pie, the president of the Parent-Teachers Association called a short meeting to order and presented the principal of the school. The principal in turn introduced the assistant principals and the counselors, each of whom spoke briefly to the assemblage. Printed material listing the subjects taught in the school together with graduation requirements was distributed. Other printed materials told the parents about various combinations of high-school subjects that are considered desirable as preparation for various vocational objectives. A period was provided for questions. Just before dismissal, the parents were divided into four groups and the two assistant principals and the two counselors conducted these new patrons on a tour of the building, so that they might become familiar with the physical plan of the school in which their children would live for three years. The response of patrons to this type of program has justified its continuance in 1952, 1953, and 1954.

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The work of the Parent-Teachers Association has been mentioned in these orientation meetings, but probably needs more attention. In the orientation meeting in September, 1954, the new patrons were told of the worth-while activities of the Strong Vincent Parent-Teacher Association, the chief of which are described below:

The Strong Vincent Parent-Teachers Association pays half the expenses of four free dancing parties scheduled in the fall of the year. These dances are held in the school gym and are built around square and round dancing. An expert caller and organizer is employed to handle the square dancing, which starts at 7:30 P.M. and continues until 9:00 P.M. A school dance orchestra is employed for the round dancing which begins at 9:00 P.M. and ends at 10:30 P.M. The total cost of these dances amounts to something over \$200, of which the Parent-Teachers Association pays \$100.

The Parent-Teachers Association sponsors Open House during American Education Week. This Open House program annually attracts about one thousand patrons. All teaching personnel are in their classrooms, and parents have an opportunity to meet teachers of their children in this visiting period, which begins at 7:30 P.M. and continues until 9:00 P.M. Home-room sponsors, who are members of the Parent-Teachers Association, are on hand in each classroom to meet the parents and to present them to the teacher. This plan assures all of the parents of an opportunity to meet the teachers. Following the visiting period, a pupil-centered program of good quality, combining entertainment with further orientation of parents, is presented in the school auditorium.

The association co-operated with the Strong Vincent faculty and the guidance department of the school district of the city of Erie in helping to make our annual College Night an outstanding success. The Parent-Teachers Association prepares and serves a buffet luncheon to the representatives of the colleges. The luncheon is served after the conclusion of the College Night interviews. In the last two years other parent-teacher associations of the city have co-operated in the purchase of the luncheon materials and in the serving.

The association has established a loan fund which makes loans up to a maximum of \$200 a year to any needy pupil going to college. No interest is charged the borrower while he is enrolled as a student in college.

It sponsors two evening meetings during the year. These meetings are centered around a discussion of some educational problem or the presentation of some cultural topic.

On one of the last days of the school year, a day known as Records Day, the association provides a buffet luncheon for the members of the faculty and clerical staff of the school. These affairs have been much enjoyed by the teachers and provide a delightful climax to the activities of the school year, a year which has demonstrated the close co-operation between parents and teachers in the work of the Strong Vincent Parent-Teachers Association.

Each year the association's membership drive is conducted through the home-room organization. The association provides a mimeographed sheet and a small coin envelope for each pupil in each home room. The pupils in the home room are requested to take this to the home and have the parents fill out the information requested on the mimeographed sheet. This mimeographed sheet carries a message inviting the parents to join the association. Each pupil is urged to return the information sheet with or without the membership fee of his parents. The mimeographed sheet and the membership fee are sealed in the coin envelopes and returned by the home-room teachers to the office, where they are picked up by the membership chairman of the association. This method of handling the membership drive has resulted in something over six hundred members joining our Parent-Teachers Association each year.

YOUTH AND THE COURTS

A NEW set of proposed standards for courts dealing with children has been issued by the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. These standards are contained in a publication entitled *Standards for Specialized Courts Dealing with Children*, developed by the Bureau in co-operation with the National Probation and Parole Association and the National Council of Juvenile Court Judges. William H. Sheridan, consultant on juvenile delinquency to the Children's Bureau, directed preparation of the document.

They reflect greatly increased knowledge of child care as well as advances made in court practice. Mr. Sheridan states: "Application of these standards may lead to revisions in practice in juvenile courts and in statutes. Many of the recommendations are already standard practice in certain juvenile courts, particularly those in urban areas throughout the country. Although the juvenile court movement is more than 50 years old, differences of opinion continue to exist on what the function of such a court should be. Some have felt courts should operate broad programs for the treatment and care of children, similar to programs of public and private welfare agencies; others would either drastically limit or remove the court's treatment functions. The document attempts to define what treatment functions are appropriate to such courts and which are appropriate to administrative agencies in the community."

Copies of this publication may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., for 35 cents each.

The Junior College Teacher— Some Unique Characteristics

T. G. HAWKINS

IF THE junior or community college occupies a well-defined position in the educational program of America, then it stands to reason that the teacher in this institution must possess some unique characteristics. The junior college teacher under consideration is teaching in the college parallel, terminal, and adult programs. The purely vocational teacher is not considered, for often his work is of a specialized nature and the courses may run for only a few weeks. The following are considered to be some of the characteristics of a good junior college teacher:

1. *The junior college teacher should have an understanding of the history, philosophy, and functions of the junior college.*

The junior college is not a "watered down" senior college. It has a specific and exact area of service in the educational system of the United States. It fulfills such functions as adult education and vocational education. The teacher should understand these and work toward accomplishing them.

If the junior college teacher is using his present position as a training ground for "real college" (senior college) and thinking in terms of moving into the senior college field, then he is missing the mark in his present position (see above). The junior college is not a promotional field for elementary or high-school teachers. Teaching on any level of our educational ladder is a worthy professional aim and requires the best effort of any person. There should be no more prestige attached to being a good college teacher than in being a good teacher on any level. The task of the teacher is to have an understanding of the philosophy and functions of the rung of the ladder he occupies and spend his efforts in trying to achieve them. A junior college or junior college teacher that apes the university or university teacher is doing neither any favor. (As long as the senior colleges pay higher salaries than the junior college for the same qualifications, then they will continue to draw off many of the best teachers.)

2. *The teacher should have some knowledge of junior college administration.*

If a teacher is to do his best work and advance the entire school program, then he must have some understanding of the problems faced by all the personnel.

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This is especially true with respect to understanding the problems faced by the junior college administrator. There is considerable difference between high-school and junior-college and junior-college and senior-college administration.

The terminal program, the college parallel program, the adult program, and the vocational program pose many problems for the administrator. The teacher thinks primarily of pushing his particular discipline and may get peeved at the administrator for not pushing it as he does. He should remember that while he thinks in terms of one part of the program the administrator must think of all. We hasten to add that the teacher does not necessarily just make the task of the administrator easy, but the administrator has the task to see that the teacher has the best possible environment in which to work. Of all the paid personnel of the school, the teacher is the most important, and all others only support the work done by the teacher.

3. *The junior college teacher is a full-time public relations officer for the school.*

For most cases the high school is required by law and needs no "selling" to exist. The senior college is often superimposed upon and not related to the community. It is not so with the junior college, especially the public one. Often the legislation permits the establishment of one and leaves the initiative to the local community. After it is established, then it must be continuously "sold" to the people it serves. The junior college teacher cannot live in an ivory tower. He must be a part of the community he serves. He is "community centered" rather than "discipline centered." The junior college has a worthy commodity to sell and the best salesman is a teacher in his normal day-to-day and week-by-week activities.

4. *The junior college teacher should know his community.*

The high-school teacher's contacts are frequently with the students' parents. The senior college teacher is often aloof from the community. The junior college teacher is in a different position from each of the others. Because of their approaching adulthood, his students do not want this intimacy between parent and teacher. The teacher's obligation to terminal students for job preparation and placement means a very close contact with and knowledge of the community. It goes without saying that there would be no vocational program just for the sake of a vocational program, but that it will be in line with available jobs. Since many of the students will remain in the community, then the general education program should devote part of its efforts and time to local problems and situations. The teacher should not only know the "elite" of the community but he should also know all sorts of people and conditions.

5. *The junior college teacher should be able to communicate effectively with both adult and youth.*

One of the avowed functions of the junior college is to provide adult education programs. Much of this will be in the form of evening classes and will

be done by the regular school faculty. Teaching these classes requires different techniques from the youth, ordinarily thought of as making up the normal junior college student body. Since the junior college is within easy commuting distance, many adults will avail themselves of the opportunity offered and attend day school. A teacher may face a class of students ranging in ages from sixteen to sixty. Teaching this wide age range can present many problems.

6. *The teacher must participate in extracurricular activities of the school.*

The teacher is often going to be called upon to offer guidance relative to jobs or professional preparation. If he is to do this, he must know the students in situations outside the classroom. In sponsoring various school clubs, organizations, etc., the teacher must remain in the background. He must almost be an observer.

7. *The junior college teacher must know his field but must not be a narrow specialist.*

In many small colleges, he must teach in two or three fields. He may teach geography, economics, and sociology. He is not teaching specialized or professional courses but is teaching what is today often referred to as general education. He must be able to relate his subjects to other disciplines—to do away with the feeling of departmentalization of education. Adequate command of the subject matter is absolutely essential. A different and broader type scholarship, rather than this, is required.

8. *The teacher must understand the mental, physical, and institutional development of junior college youths.*

In contrast with the high-school students, the junior college student is more mature, is able to do more work, is more skeptical, and is more intellectually curious. He is in a period of transition; he wants to be treated like an adult but often acts like an adolescent. He is a youth trying to adjust to adult standards and, as such, requires a great amount of understanding by the teacher. He must be allowed to develop resourcefulness and independence; yet he must have guidance readily available when he needs it. The teacher must know the state and process of development of the student of this age group.

9. *The junior college teacher should see to it that each student (youth or adult) gets what he needs and desires, from the courses he takes.*

The student body is likely to be rather heterogeneous. Many of the students—especially the adults—will have specific and definite reasons for taking a particular course. It is the responsibility of the teacher to discover and meet these needs. He must remember the somewhat trite assertion that "he is teaching people rather than subjects."

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A good teacher on one level could probably become a good teacher on another level, but he would have to acquire some new characteristics and put a different

emphasis on others. Each level of our educational ladder requires certain attributes on behalf of the teacher and, if we move within these steps, then we must change ourselves to meet the situation in each.

The junior college teacher must be a super-teacher. A senior college may offset poor teaching with research (seeking new truths) but not the junior college. The junior college teacher is not a "researcher." His task is to take knowledge and make it come alive in the behavior of men and women. He does not love his subject less, but he loves the imparting of it more. *Teaching is the function* of the junior college and great teachers are needed to carry out this function.

A Student Council Sponsor's Workshop

WILLIAM S. STERNER

THE Third Annual Workshop for Student Council Sponsors will be held on Friday, October 22, 1954, on the New Brunswick campus of the Men's Colleges of Rutgers University. The school of education of the State University of New Jersey will again play host to student council sponsors and secondary-school principals. Adult leaders interested in student council work are invited to attend the workshop. Many individuals in New Jersey will receive formal invitations. Interested persons in other states should write the author for details concerning the workshop. At the time of this writing, many details remain indefinite; however, subsequent paragraphs describing the 1953 workshop will give the reader some idea of plans for the workshop.

One hundred eighteen student council sponsors and secondary-school principals from eighty-six schools attended the 1953 Workshop for Student Council Sponsors. The participants represented schools in New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania.

The student council workshop held at the State University of New Jersey differs from those in most other states in that it is organized only for adults who are interested in the student council movement. Other workshops on the student council, notably those in Arkansas, Colorado, and Texas, are planned for high-school students as well as teachers and principals.

In New Jersey there is a long tradition of almost thirty annual conferences of the state association of student councils. These conferences are so popular that only by rigidly enforced limitations on attendance can the number of participants be kept under two thousand persons. Almost 200 secondary schools have been represented each year at recent conferences of this state association. Thus, it seemed impractical to organize a student council workshop in New Jersey that would be open to students as well as adults.

At the suggestion of council leaders, Elbert K. Fretwell was invited to give the keynote address at the opening session. Dr. Fretwell is well known to council sponsors because of his active support of student councils. Gerald M. Van Pool, Director of Student Activities for the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, also joined the workshop group as chief consultant. These two nationally known authorities on the student council shared the platform at the morning general session.

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Many educators assisted in the planning of the workshop. However, major contributions were made by these persons: Mrs. Freda W. Marden, Executive Secretary of the New Jersey Association of High-School Councils; A. H. Flury, Assistant Commissioner of Education, New Jersey Department of Education, Trenton; Warren Held, Principal of the Plainfield High School and chairman of the standing committee on student councils for the state association of secondary-school principals; Harvey Nicholls, Principal of the Bound Brook High School and long an officer of the state principals association; Henry C. Herge, Dean of the School of Education, Rutgers University; and the author of this article, also of Rutgers, who served as workshop co-ordinator.

The 1953 workshop was organized into five groups which were devoted to pre-arranged topics. Only in a few cases did sponsors change groups after lunch.

Desirable projects for councils to undertake was the topic considered by one group led by Principal Held of Plainfield. Consultants with this group were Mrs. Katherine deNazario, Director of Social Activities in the Dumont High School; and Don Hitchner, Administrative Assistant, East Orange High School. The recorder, David Schlesinger, sponsor of the student council in the Atlantic City High School, noted that the group devoted its time to such matters as orientation of new students, student days, student court, selection of council members, social activities, honor systems, and the problem of vandalism.

Improving council meetings was the topic for a second group led by Miss Rose Sternberg, student council sponsor in the Vineland High School. Assistants with this group were Bernard A. Reed, vice principal of the Morristown High School (consultant); and Mrs. Catharine S. Darby, student council sponsor in the North Hunterdon Regional High School, Annandale (recorder). Participants decided that these factors were essential for good council meetings: a definite time and place set aside in the school so that all members may attend, a carefully planned agenda for each meeting available to members in advance of the meeting, enactment of legislation according to established rules of parliamentary procedure, assignment of committee work to responsible students not just to members of the council, and communication of major business transacted to the students in each home room.

Gerald M. Van Pool led the workshop group concerned with areas of council authority. Miss Mary E. Rossi, principal of the Vineland High School, served as recorder for the group. Mr. Van Pool emphasized the place of the council in the secondary school, student council finance, responsibilities over which students might exert major control, those over which students and faculty jointly share authority, and those over which pupils should have no control.

Many suggestions for the improvement of assembly programs were made by Willard Mohn, Director of Assemblies at the East Orange High School. He

recommended that students take an active part in planning assembly programs with the faculty, that tryouts be held for student presiding officers, and that the programs should be varied in their appeal. Other topics discussed were commercial agencies, stage crews, and exchange assemblies.

Newly appointed sponsors met with Dr. Sterner to discuss their problems. Recorder of this group was Miss Effie Chapas, student council sponsor in the South Plainfield High School. The problems of these sponsors were concerned with procedures for nomination and election of officers and members of the council, qualifications for members and officers, the role of the faculty adviser to the council, ways of assisting the weak student president, and ways of keeping students interested in council activities. Many sources of information were cited for the sponsors: Yearbooks of the National Association of Student Councils, books on the student council, magazines which are devoted to student activities, and organizations that can offer help to the new sponsor.

The participants in the 1953 Rutgers workshop for student council sponsors were unanimously in favor of making these workshops an annual affair. They voted more than two to one to hold the workshops for one day only preferably in the fall of the year soon after school opens. The idea of having a student council workshop at Rutgers for adults only seems to be filling a need felt by the teachers and principals who are working closely with student councils.

NEWS NOTES

EDUCATION TOPS SPENDING IN 25 STATES—State spending for education averaged \$27.37 per capita in the 1953 fiscal year, the Census Bureau reported on the financial reports from 25 states. It did not say this was a record, but did assert that education accounts for the largest share of state spending than any other function. It said *per capita* spending for highways was \$21.97; for public welfare, \$15.01, and for health and hospitals, \$8.86. Other spending for government purposes brought the total *per capita* outlay to \$89.02. General revenue in the 25 states was equal to \$90 *per capita*, with taxes providing three fourths of it and 18 per cent coming from inter-governmental sources and the Federal government. For most of the states, borrowing was substantially larger than debt redemption. A major source of revenue in seven states was state liquor stores.

FILMS OF TV PROGRAMS—Appreciating the fact that the use of certain films on television for educational purposes is an extension of school activities, a particularly liberal policy in regard to use by schools of films for which Bailey Films, Inc., holds exclusive TV rights, on either educational stations or commercial channels televising occasional educational programs, has been established by the firm which for fifteen years has been supplying audio-visual aids to schools, industries, homes, churches, libraries, and museums. Bailey films available for televising are edited to a single high standard of quality and especially selected for TV use from the large 1954 *Bailey Film Catalog* of educational subjects. Prospective users of the subjects are invited to preview them at their convenience on their own projectors or studio closed circuits at no cost except transportation to and from the Bailey offices. Detailed information regarding rental and purchase prices, individual films, and term contracts is available on application to Bailey Films, Inc., 6109 De Longpre Avenue, Hollywood 28, California.

The Book Column

Professional Books

ADAMS, FAY. *Educating America's Children*, second edition. New York 10: Ronald Press Co. 1954. 638 pp. \$5. This is a textbook on the curriculum and methods of teaching in the elementary school. It describes and illustrates the objectives, materials, and procedures of elementary education in the light of the nature, interests, and needs of the elementary-school pupil. In this second edition, a new chapter has been added on the subject of evaluation in the classroom. The chapter on teaching the social sciences has been completely rewritten and the sections on science and arithmetic contain large amounts of new material. Many other changes have been made throughout the book.

The American Educational Catalog, 1954. New York 19: R. R. Bowker Co. 1954. 192 pp. The 83rd annual issue, revised to February, 1954, of elementary and junior and senior high-school books classified by subject with supplementary readers and pedagogical books.

ANDREWS, GLADYS. *Creative Rhythmic Movement for Children*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1954. 208 pp. (8½" x 11") \$4.75. The author, an internationally known expert on creativity in the field of child development, presents a method of teaching in which the teacher plays a supportive role to help the pupil work out his own problems. By means of this method, she believes pupils are stimulated to create their own ways of doing rather than to imitate patterns. Here method is an outgrowth of the recognition of a pupil's need to be active. It is based on research and actual experience with many groups of pupils and teachers. All of the material presented in this book has been tested and used in elementary schools, high schools, and colleges. The form and content of this book are based on the results obtained from a questionnaire sent to hundreds of teachers asking them what they wanted on the most practical methods of dealing with creative rhythmic movement for pupils. As a result, she tells in detail and illustrations how to introduce this to classes and what may be expected to be accomplished thereafter.

ASHMORE, H. S. *The Negro and the Schools*. Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press. 1954. 244 pp. (Paper cover) \$2.75. This volume is a summary and interpretation of the findings of the more than forty persons who worked on a project of bi-racial education in the United States known as the Ashmore Project. The study was made possible by a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education set up by the Ford Foundation. Three additional reports or publications, presenting in greater detail the basic material gathered in the study, will be available at a later date through the Univ. of North Carolina Press. These three will be: an essentially sociological work based upon field studies of communities in transition from segregation to integration in the public schools, a collection of field studies of southern institutions of higher education which have lately admitted Negroes, and a composite of the public school administration, population, and economic studies.

This volume, with those to follow it, is intended to bring into focus the dimensions and nature of a complex educational problem that in many ways provides a significant test of American democracy. This book is the only available up-to-date, nation-wide survey and analysis of this problem. The volume contains a Foreword by Owen J. Roberts, former associate justice of the United States Supreme Court.

AYER, F. C. *Fundamentals of Instructional Supervision*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1954. 523 pp. \$4.50. Here is a practical guiding philosophy of supervision, based on an analysis and synthesis of the major principles which have given rise to democratic, creative, and scientific supervision. The book is composed of 22 chapters. The titles herewith listed give

the reader an idea of what the author presents: The Nature of Supervision, Guiding Principles of Supervision, The Principle of Leadership, Practices and Techniques of Leadership, The Principle of Co-operation, Implementing the Principle of Co-operation, The Principle of Considerateness, Practices and Techniques of Considerateness, The Principle of Creativity, Practices and Techniques of Creativity, The Principle of Integration, Practices and Techniques of Integration, The Principle of Community Orientation, Practices and Techniques of Community Orientation, The Principle of Planning, Practices and Techniques of Planning, The Principle of Flexibility, Practices and Techniques of Flexibility, The Principle of Objectivity, Practices and Techniques of Objectivity, The Principle of Evaluation, and Practices and Techniques of Evaluation. Each guiding principle is developed in a full chapter which traces its historical, scientific, and philosophic background, and is followed by a chapter which illustrates its use in the leading practices and techniques of supervision. This is one of the Harper's Exploration Series in Education under the advisory editorship of Dr. John Guy Fowlkes of the School of Education, University of Wisconsin.

BAKER, J. F. *Elementary Evaluative Criteria*. Boston 15: Boston Univ., Sch. of Educ., 332 Bay State Rd. 1953. 112 pp. This instrument is a result of a group research project by 25 graduate students at Boston University. The basic format of statements of guiding principles, checklists, evaluation items, and graphic summaries found in the Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Standards materials has been followed in setting up these criteria. The procedures used included extensive review of the educational literature, development of tentative materials for criticism by the research group, revision of the materials and submission to leading specialists throughout the country for criticism and suggestions, development of revised sections, and final revision into a total evaluative instrument. Approximately 100 consultants and specialists assisted in review and criticism of the materials.

BARRON, M. L. *The Juvenile in Delinquent Society*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf. 1954. 356 pp. \$6.75. The central theme of this book is implicit in its title. The problem of juvenile delinquency can best be understood—and dealt with—in a comprehensive, societal frame of reference.

Although the author's approach is basically a sociological one, he faces his task with the conviction that it is no longer possible to confine analysis of any social problem exclusively to one discipline. His book draws upon the fields of anthropology, psychology, and psychiatry for pertinent theory and research findings. Part One of the book represents an effort to define delinquency not only as a social problem, but also as a unique concept. Part Two is a survey of the major kinds of etiological thought and analysis regarding juvenile delinquency. Part Three is a discussion of societal reactions to delinquency, ranging from detection and detention and the juvenile court, to the various types of disposition and treatment of cases, and finally delinquency control and prevention.

BERDIE, R. F. *After High School What?* Minneapolis: Univ. of Minnesota Press. 1954. 252 pp. \$4.25. Whether a high-school graduate enters college, goes to work, takes vocational training, or follows any other path open to him is of concern not only to the youth himself but also to the whole nation because of its manpower needs. Experts in manpower problems are seeking answers to questions like these: Is any considerable portion of our human resources being wasted? If so, what factors are causing that waste? Why do some highly qualified students go to college and others not? This study of 25,000 high-school seniors presents new evidence pertaining to the factors which actually determine college attendance. The influence of the cultural aspects of home and family upon the educational ambitions of young people is measured. Many variables, such as paternal occupations, parental attitudes toward college, nationality origin, and geographical factors, are analyzed for their role in determining who goes to college and who doesn't. The study is based on the answers of the high-school seniors to questionnaires about

their after-graduation plans and a follow-up study of how closely they adhered to these plans. Interviews with parents also provided material for the survey.

BRODY, LEON, and STACK, H. J. editors. *Highway Safety and Driver Education*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1954. 480 pp. \$4.50. This is probably the first and only text specifically and exclusively designed for preparing and improving teachers of driver education at the college level. The text presents detailed information on materials, methods, and organization of instruction procedures. Moreover, it provides an up-to-date, comprehensive picture of traffic safety problems and programs through contributions by authorities in the field. All of the text's material has been reviewed and endorsed by driver education authorities and driving experts from every section of the country.

The book in addition to text contains many photographs, drawings, statistical charts, and diagrams. These are all recent and help emphasize content of every topic. In Part I and Part II, the methods of classroom instruction and actual practice driving, with lists of materials used, are fully explained. Part III deals with materials and methods for practice driving. Part IV treats the organization and administrative methods of driver education programs. The various types and phases of program planning are detailed, including the resources and agencies used in traffic safety education at the present time. Part V discusses the extension of driver education.

BROWN, F. J. *Educational Sociology*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1947. 540 pp. \$4. The author approaches this subject not as a study of social problems and education but rather as a study to point the way to a solution of problems through a knowledge of the social processes and their significance in the whole range of education. In this book the author looks upon education as the major instrument of social control. The book is divided into four parts: Why Educational Sociology? Individual-Group Education, Agencies of Person-Group Interaction, and Outcome of Individual-Group Interaction.

Building Americans in the Schools. Washington 6, D. C.: American Assn. of School Administrators, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1954. 255 pp. \$2.50. This volume is the proceedings and official report of the 80th annual convention of the AASA held in Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 13-18, 1954. Included are the 13 major addresses before the general sessions.

BUROS, LUELLA. *The Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook*. Highland Park, New Jersey: Gryphon Press, 220 Montgomery St. 1954. 1,189 pp. \$18. This reference work lists 793 major tests and 4,417 references and bibliographic citations on tests; incorporates evaluations by 308 reviewers. It is definitive; it analyzes tests, helping school administrators, psychologists, and guidance workers to choose the kinds of evaluation aids that will work best for them. This new *Fourth Yearbook* has been limited in printing, and fewer than 4,000 copies are available; therefore, orders should be placed immediately.

BUTLER, F. A. *Improvement of Teaching in Secondary Schools*, third edition revised. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press. 1954. 445 pp. \$4.75. This book for the modern study of teaching as a science is now revised to assimilate the latest facts and theories in education. A chapter has been added; references, illustrations, and bibliographies have been brought up to date; new sections cover such recent developments as the use of audio-visual materials, the influence of radio and television, and the new theories of group processes. As in previous editions, the whole discussion is oriented to the problems of secondary-school teaching. The author believes that teaching must be conceived of as a science, resting on clearly defined principles, and not simply as a random collection of skills. Convinced that, both in teacher-training in colleges and in actual teaching in secondary schools, there has been too much technique, too little insight, he proceeds first to elucidation of principles. Eight basic components are discovered in the teaching process: objectives, self-activity, types of learning, unitary learning, motivation, provision for individual differences, diagnostic and remedial teaching, and the maintenance of the proper physical and social environment for learning. With the theoretical foundations thus firmly laid, the author goes on to discuss methods by which to "teach out" the principles. This discus-

sion is documented with illustrations, drawn from both modern and more conventional techniques, which reveal a lively awareness of the actual situation in secondary-school teaching. Thus a working blueprint is provided for a science of teaching in which classroom experience is the ordered and logical result of insight into basic first principles.

College Admission with Advanced Standing. Philadelphia 41: Dr. W. H. Cornog, Pres., Central High School. 1954 (January). 91 pp. A report on the 12 high schools that are offering a college calibre course to students in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. Those students taking any of these courses may upon examination receive advanced standing in the 12 colleges included in this study. Eleven subject matter committees have been organized to teach eleven different subjects in the high school. This study, known as the School and College Study, is being made possible by a series of grants from the Fund for the Advancement of Education.

CONRAD, M. J. *A Manual for Determining the Operating Capacity of Secondary-School Buildings.* Columbus 10: Bureau of Educational Research, The Ohio State University. 1954. 32 pp. (7 $\frac{1}{4}$ " x 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ ") The problem of determining the operating capacity of secondary-school buildings has long confronted the school administrator as well as the specialist in the school-plant field. The question of how many pupils a given secondary-school building will house is a frequent one to which neither the school administrator nor the survey specialist has had either an answer or an adequate technique of finding one. The technique described in this handbook has been developed to enable the school administrator to determine the operating capacity of his building in terms of the specific educational program and policies of the school district. The forms which are discussed in this pamphlet are printed separately in another pamphlet (16 pp.) under the title, *Forms for Determining the Operating Capacity of Secondary-School Buildings* by Dr. Conrad.

CRONBACK, L. J. *Educational Psychology.* New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1954. 656 pp. \$5.50. This book presents the principles of educational psychology to teachers and to those in training. In the book the author, in his selection of material, has been guided by four objectives: educational psychology must be relevant to school problems, it must be based soundly on research, it must be complex enough to do justice to human behavior, and it must be presented clearly and with understanding. The book of 19 chapters is divided into five parts: (1) psychology and school problems, (2) readiness and its development, (3) acquiring ideas, attitudes, and skills, (4) planning, motivation, and evaluation, and (5) emotional learning. Questions, illustrations, and bibliographies included in the book are designed to motivate, to arouse curiosity, and to help learning.

DEWEY, JOHN. *Democracy and Education.* New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1953. 448 pp. This book, in its sixth printing since 1916, is an introduction to the philosophy of education. It endeavors to detect and state the ideas implied in a democratic society and to apply these ideas to the problems of the enterprise of education. The discussion includes an indication of the constructive aims and methods of public education as seen from this point of view, and a critical estimate of the theories of knowing and moral development which were formulated in earlier social conditions, but which still operate, in societies nominally democratic, to hamper the adequate realization of the democratic ideal.

DIFFOR, J. W., and HORKHEIMER, M. F., editors. *Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms*, sixth edition. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1954. 218 pp. \$5. This sixth annual edition is devoted entirely to free slidefilms and free slides. It is a complete, annotated schedule of free slidefilms—bringing information on free slidefilms for immediate use within the covers of a single book. For educational as well as financial reasons, free slidefilms from industrial, government and philanthropic organizations have rendered and continue to render a valuable contribution to the curriculum, by supplying information not available elsewhere.

This edition lists 708 titles, 87 more than were listed in the previous edition. Nine sets of slides are listed. Of these 708 titles, 99 were not listed in the fifth edition. All new titles are starred. All told, nearly 50,000 separate frames or pictures, or miniature posters, from 88 different sources are brought to you. Forty of the slidefilms listed in this *Guide* may be retained permanently by the borrower, to start his filmstrip library or to add to his present library. Each listing carries the following pertinent information: titles of slidefilms, types of slidefilms, whether sound or silent, number of frames of silent slidefilms, number of frames and running time of sound slidefilms, dates of release, annotations, terms and conditions of loans, names and addresses of agencies, information on free slides, whether a manual or script accompanies slidefilm, filmstrips that may be retained permanently.

DIFFOR, J. W.; HORKHEIMER, M. F.; and FOWLKES, J. G., editors. *Educators Guide to Free Films*, fourteenth edition. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1954. 580 pp. \$6. This fourteenth annual edition is a professional, cyclopedic service on multisensory learning aids. It will make it possible to bring to the boys and girls many experiences unavailable by any other means. This edition replaces all volumes and supplements which have preceded it. It is a complete, up-to-date, annotated schedule of free films—bringing the compiled information on free films for immediate use within the covers of a single book. Many films "rented" to schools by other agencies are free from sources in this publication.

For educational as well as financial reasons, free films from industrial, government, and philanthropic organizations have rendered and continue to render a valuable contribution to the curriculum. Dean John Guy Fowlkes adds another to his popular series of significant articles on contributions of free films to education—"World Understanding and Sponsored Films."

Here is listed 2,982 titles of films, 684 of which were not listed in the previous edition. All new titles are starred (*). For fourteen straight years, the *Guide* has grown—from 102 pages, listing 671 titles, to this 580-page volume of 2,982 titles. It lists 408 more films than the 1953 edition. Perhaps of equal significance, the improvement in the quality of free films has paralleled the increase in the number offered. It provides rich supplementary visual materials at a minimum cost.

DOUGLAS, H. R. *Modern Administration of Secondary Schools*. Boston 17: Ginn and Co. 1954. 613 pp. \$5. The author has prepared this book for two groups of people, those preparing for work in school administration and those in the work who wish to extend their understanding of the work. While this book is a revision of the author's two earlier editions, the great number and character of changes in high-school administration in the last twenty years have made it necessary for him to rewrite the book almost entirely. While the book has not been prepared with any particular size of school in mind, it does apply perhaps more to those of the small or medium-sized enrollments, of 500 or smaller. The author has drawn from a wide variety of experiences. The book is divided into seven chapters and covers about every problem with which the average school administrator is confronted.

EIKENBERRY, D. H. *The Need for the Upward Extension of Secondary Education in Ohio*. Columbus: College of Educ., Ohio State Univ. 1954. 93 pp. (Mimeo.) The purpose of this monograph is to show Ohio's place in the movement to extend secondary education upward to include the two years usually referred to as the junior college years, and, more particularly, to bring together the significant findings of a number of studies that have been concerned with the need in Ohio for upward extension. In addition, it presents estimates of the present and future potential number of youth in Ohio who are now and in the future will be seeking educational opportunities that do not now exist, and, finally, it presents the recommendations that have been made in recent years by national groups such as the Educational Policies Commission, the Presidential Commission on Higher Education, and the American Federation of Labor. To the recommendations of these groups is added a statement by James B. Conant, ex-president of Harvard University. This monograph is in preliminary draft form.

ELSBREE, W. S., and REUTTER, E. E. *Staff Personnel in Public Schools*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1954. 448 pp. \$4.65. The public-school teaching profession includes slightly over one fifth of all the professional workers in the United States. In many respects it is in a state of transition. Qualification standards, although improved over those prevailing a few decades ago, still are below optimum levels. Salaries are still inadequate to attract a sufficient number of our ablest young people into teaching. In this book, the authors have tried to present an analysis of the problems relating to this professional staff. Current conditions, practices, and trends are discussed, and attention is given to the administration of policies and programs pertaining to the instructional personnel. The book deals with major problems and issues confronting the profession in such areas as recruitment, preparation, certification, salary legislation, collective negotiation, professional associations, academic freedom, ethics, tenure, recruitment, teacher selection, teacher assignment and load, salary schedules, leave provisions, in-service salaries, education, evaluation of teacher performance, supervision, morale, and legal right and liabilities.

Essays on Liberty, 2 volumes. Irvington-on-Hudson, New York: The Foundation for Economic Education. Vol. I, 1952, 307 pp.; Vol. II, 1954, 442 pp. Volumes I and II each contain 37 articles, information about the authors of the articles, and an index. These volumes are a progress report on some of the Foundation's research in various areas of human relationships. These essays on liberty are offered in the hope that they will help to identify the nature and difficulty of the problem we face—a problem that must be solved if man is to advance towards his own potentialities.

FORSYTHE, CHARLES. *Administration of High School Athletics*, third edition. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1954. 480 pp. \$6.65. Based on the author's many years of experience in the field, this guide and reference presents the methods which have repeatedly proved successful in actual use. Although the author's treatment of the history, objectives, and trends of high-school athletics lends the book perspective, emphasis is placed on the practical aspects which have a direct bearing on the success of an athletic program. The author shows how to administer an athletic and physical education program in a typical high school. In demonstrating the solution of problems that arise in organizing and managing such a program, he gives specific examples, uses charts, graphs, and forms. The author's recommendations, the result of many years' experience in dealing with hundreds of high schools, can be readily applied to the specific problems prevailing in any high school. He shows figures and tables to illustrate some of the more progressive policies now in effect in schools and state associations. He considers the problems from the national and state viewpoints before bringing them down to the local level. He discusses the policies and objectives of the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations and State High School Athletic and Activity Associations.

The book shows how to finance a high-school athletic program with foresight, sound judgment, ingenuity, and, most of all, intelligent planning. It furnishes forms and plans for schools of different sizes; it offers suggestions on athletic eligibility, citing national, state, and local policies; it shows procedures in contest management.

Throughout the book, the author strives to raise the administrative standards of the athletic programs in American high schools. His aim is not only to improve the programs for the select few, but also to broaden the scope of the programs for the many.

FRALEY, L. M.; JOHNSON, W. R.; and MASSEY, B. H., editors. *Physical Education and Healthful Living*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1954. 223 pp. \$2.75. This book defines the physically educated person as one who has an understanding of the basic scientific principles of exercise, diet, and rest. He is the person who is adept in the performance of a variety of skills to which he may turn for enjoyment and regeneration during leisure hours. He has an understanding and appreciation of the popular American sports, to the end that he may enjoy them intelligently as a spectator. And he is in possession of an efficiently functioning body

capable of broad and intensive physical experience. In short, the physically educated person is interested in living a full and healthy life, and is living that life.

This book consists of a group of specially selected articles designed to acquaint the individual with the bases of healthful living. Demonstrating the importance of having a sound body and perfect health, it is organized to give as full a coverage of the subject as possible.

GAVIN, R. W. *Understanding Juvenile Delinquency*. New York: Oxford Book Co. 1954. 80 pp. 30c. This book has been prepared in the hope that the young people who read it will become interested in the causes of juvenile delinquency. Topics discussed are "What is juvenile delinquency?" "The causes of juvenile delinquency," "A scientific study of delinquent and non-delinquent boys," "How can we prevent boys and girls from becoming delinquents?" Each chapter contains a summary and questions "to think about." Also the book includes a bibliography of reading material and a listing of films on the subject.

GILCHRIST, R. S., chairman. *Creating a Good Environment for Learning*. Washington 6, D. C.: Assn. for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1954. 319 pp. \$3.75. This book, the 1954 yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, is addressed to the wide audience represented in its organization. Emphasis is placed on the part the teacher plays in creating a good learning environment. There are also many implications for those who work with teachers, helping them to create the conditions and arrange the surroundings in which learning is encouraged. The book is challenging and practical. The first half consists of case studies of the efforts of some teachers to create good learning environments; the second half consists of an analysis of techniques for improving learning environments. Emphasis is also placed upon the expanding role supervisors must assume today as they help teachers grow in teaching effectiveness and in all phases of instructional leadership. Other features of the book are: pictures, marginal comments, and a selected bibliography.

GILLILAND, J. W. *School Camping*. Washington 6, D. C.: Assn. for Supervision and Development, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1954. 64 pp. 75c. A discussion of school camps including the development of the movement, some programs in operation for pupils and for teachers, problems in initiating a program, educational values. Bibliography.

HANDBOOK OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS. Boston 8: Porter Sargent, 11 Beacon St. 1954. 1,232 pp. \$8. This is the 35th edition of this famous bible on private schools. Herein are listed and described more than 4,500 private schools in the country. The descriptive text includes for the first time in any publication the current college entrance records of graduates from leading preparatory schools. New also are statistics covering the number of students admitted yearly, and estimated costs in addition to tuition charges. Other new features include a directory of 325 schools and other facilities for exceptional children, more than 1,000 nursery and kindergarten schools separately listed, a section of more than 1,000 private and diocesan Roman Catholic schools, and a section on Canadian resident schools.

The brief introduction comments on recent trends in both public and private education, with particular emphasis on schooling and population trends, mental health programs, conformism versus individualism, new curriculums, and goals and methods. This handbook is a *must* in virtually every high-school library.

How Can We Get Enough Good Teachers? New York 36: National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools. 1954. 94 pp. 25c. Minimum order \$1. This nonprofit corporation for the improvement of the public schools, since its inception in May, 1949, has during this short period of time prepared and released a number of bulletins helpful not only to lay citizens of which its membership is composed but also to school administrators and teachers themselves. Some of these booklets in addition to this one on teachers include: *How Can Citizens Help Their Schools?* *How Can We Advertise School Needs?* *How Can We Help Our School Boards?* *How Can We Organize a State Citizens Committee?* and *How Can We Organize for Better Schools?*

These also are available from the Commission for Public Schools at 25 cents each, on placing a minimum order of \$1.

The booklet on *How Can We Get Enough Good Teachers?* is a working guidebook. It is intended to help its users discover how the teacher shortage affects their own communities; undertake co-operative study and action on specific problems; and gain perspective. Some of the major problems discussed are: teacher shortage, balancing supply and demand, making teaching more attractive, how to prepare enough good teachers, how these problems apply to a specific community and state, and how to start action among citizens. Throughout the text, the statement is frequently made that certain questions need more study and that opinion differs greatly on particular issues. These repeated reminders are necessary because there are so many sides to any school problem. Without purposeful and sustained study and action at the local and state level, it is impossible to reach the best solutions for nation-wide school problems. Since our schools are organized, built, and staffed according to local needs by the people in each community and state, they must be sustained the same way. Here are six booklets with which every school and community should become familiar.

HUMPHREYS, J. A., and TRAXLER, A. E. *Guidance Services*. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 37 W. Grand Ave. 1954. 456 pp. \$4.75. This publication is an introduction to the field of student guidance services. It should be of interest to faculty members as a group as well as to experienced guidance counselors and those requiring in-service instruction in the essentials of guidance services. This professional book for guidance workers consists of four main parts, each of which covers an important area within the guidance field. Part I, "Understandings Basic to Guidance Work," presents the guidance point of view, sociological bases for guidance work, psychological bases of guidance services, guidance principles and aims, and the history of guidance services; Part II, "Guidance Tools and Techniques," discusses collecting and recording for guidance purposes, counseling and interviewing in guidance work, group techniques in the guidance program, the follow-up in guidance services, and research and evaluation in guidance services; Part III, "Solving Students' Major Problems," treats various principles and techniques of helping students to solve educational problems, to make wise vocational choices, to find jobs, and to solve personal problems; Part IV, "Administration of the Guidance Program," deals with the organization and the staffing of guidance services; and Part V, "The Future of Guidance Services," points to past gains and to coming opportunities in this essential educational field.

This book, the fourth book published in the SRA Professional Guidance Series, is edited by Clifford P. Froehlich. The other titles in this series are: *Counseling Adolescents* by S. A. Hamrin and B. B. Paulson (380 pp., \$4.35); *Occupational Information—its Nature and Use* by M. F. Baer and E. C. Roebor (603 pp., \$5.75); and *Studying Students—Guidance Methods of Individual Analysis* by C. P. Froehlich and J. G. Darley (448 pp., \$4.75). A set of all four books in the SRA Professional Guidance Series (a \$19.60 value) is available for \$14.95. The books making up the SRA Professional Guidance Series are based directly upon the committee reports on counselor preparation that were developed by the Eighth National Conference of State Supervisors of Guidance Services and Counselor Trainers and that were published by the U. S. Office of Education.

Improving Education in Kentucky. Lexington: Univ. of Kentucky. 1954 (March). 136 pp. \$1. Proceedings of the thirtieth annual educational conference and the nineteenth annual meeting of the Kentucky Association of Colleges, Secondary, and Elementary Schools. The subjects discussed concern a variety of educational interests.

LANGDON, GRACE, and STOUT, I. W. *Teacher-Parent Interviews*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1954. 368 pp. \$3.95. Any teacher—from nursery school through high school—can successfully conduct parent interviews with the help of this book. And through such interviews, teachers can improve the instruction and development of their pupils. Convinced

that nothing can replace informal talks with parents as an effective means of understanding and guiding pupils, the authors provide practical help for conducting every phase of the interview—how to initiate an interview, what to say during an interview, what to do in difficult situations, and how to plan the details of an interview. Underlying the entire discussion is a genuine respect for the feelings and attitudes of all those concerned with the interviewing process. Every suggestion takes into account the effect that words and actions have on the relationships of the participants.

Although specific procedures are suggested, the authors never overlook the fact that each situation is unique and calls for the exercise of the individual teacher's judgment and discretion. Dogmatic formulas are carefully avoided. Every interview has the welfare of the pupil as its primary objective, but the book also demonstrates the value of these conferences to the parents, the school, and the teacher himself.

Based on the authors' wide experience and on the suggestions of teachers all over the country, the book provides an abundance of illustrative material taken from actual interviews with parents.

MARTIN, W. E., and STENDLER, C. B. *Readings in Child Development*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1954. 525 pp. \$5. A modern conception of child growth and development takes into account three important factors: the heritage of the child as a human being, the society and culture into which the child is born, and the life experiences of the child. In this book are papers which deal with these three factors, with the addition of others which concern the process by which the child becomes a particular member of a particular society. This volume is divided into four parts: Part One, The Child; Part Two, Society and Culture; Part Three, Socialization; Part Four, Socializing Agents. Part One deals with the principle that, because they are human beings, children resemble one another in certain important respects the world over. Part Two deals with points of view on how and when cultural conditions exert their influence. Having considered the potentialities of the child as a human being and the influence of society and culture, the authors turn in Part Three to a study of the process by which each child with this particular native endowment becomes a member of society. Here, again, different points of view are presented. In Part Four, the authors turn to a discussion of the socializing agents which influence each child's development in a unique way. Such factors as infant disciplines, maternal deprivations, parental attitudes, social class membership, the peer group, and the school are considered here.

McCLOSKEY, GORDAN; KATTERLE, Z. B.; and OVIATT, D. T. *Introduction to Teaching in American Schools*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1954. 480 pp. \$5.25. This text helps the prospective teacher to make an informed decision about entering the profession and at the same time provides him with background that will make advanced courses in education more meaningful. The authors employ narrative and case materials to describe 'day-to-day routine. Their presentation enables the reader to identify himself with the teacher, to feel how it is to spend almost half of one's working hours from September to June in a classroom, often with as many as forty pupils. Throughout, the book seeks to develop intelligent dedication to the profession of teaching. The pleasures and responsibilities of the profession, its satisfactions, and its shortcomings are presented without bias.

McMILLAN, BROCKWAY, et al: *Current Trends in Information Theory*. Pittsburgh, Pa.: Univ. of Pittsburgh Press. 1954. 204 pp. \$4. This was the topic chosen for the seventh annual conference on current trends in psychology. In addition to the introduction, it contains the seven papers presented at the conference. The seven papers were as follows: Mathematics Aspects of Information Theory by Brockway McMillan, Information Theory and the Discrimination of Sequences in Stimulus Events by David A. Grant, The Influence of Response Coding on Performance in Motor Tasks by Paul M. Fitts, Some Perceptual Problems from the Point of View of Information Theory by Frederick C. Frick, Information on The Head by Warren S.

McCulloch, *Information Theory and the Study of Speech* by George A. Miller, and *Information Theory and Clinical Medicine* by Henry W. Brosin.

Modern Education and Human Values. Pittsburgh: Univ. of Pittsburgh Press. 1954. 98 pp. \$3. This book (Vol. 5) contains a series of four lectures given under the auspices of the School of Education of the University of Pittsburgh, delivered during the school years, 1952-53 and 1953-54, and made possible by the Pitcairn-Crabbe Foundation. The subjects are "Moral and Religious Assumptions in America's Educational Heritage" by Mildred M. Horton, "The Most Critical Problem in Our American Universities" by Harry E. Fosdick, "An Oriental Looks at the Modern Western Civilization" by Hu Shik, and "The Human Values of American History" by James P. Baxter.

MURRAY, J. P., and C. E. *Guide Lines for Group Leaders.* New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1954. 224 pp. \$3.95. This book deals with and answers the thousand-and-one problems that face the men and women in positions of group responsibility who have not had special training in social work. It tells how to conduct successful programs of every type, whether your work is with Scout troops, youth organizations, churches, camps, community centers, etc. For every volunteer and untrained worker who wants to do a better job.

NOBLE, S. G. *A History of American Education*, revised edition. New York 16: Rinehart and Co. 1954. 572 pp. \$5. The organization of this text has been modified by bracketing the chapters belonging to the several periods into separate units, as "Colonial Beginnings," "The Later Colonial Period," and so forth. The author's purpose in this revision is to register the impact of the new forces upon American ways of living, thought processes, and school procedures. The results of recent research have been noted and significant new titles have been added to the bibliographies of the earlier chapters as well as later ones. The economic and cultural data for the periods since the Civil War have been elaborated. Chapter 14 has been substantially rewritten and organized. Chapter 17, a new chapter, is a digest and appraisal of cultural progress since 1900.

OLSON, O. J., editor. *Education on the Air.* Columbus: Ohio State Univ. 1954. 351 pp. This is the twenty-third yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio and Television. It is divided into nine major sections: Broadcasting in America (4 articles), Television in Education (5 articles), Education on Commercial Stations (3 articles), Broadcasting in Organized Education (7 articles), Production and Program Areas (6 articles), Organizations Utilizing Radio (5 articles), Research Technique and Problems (5 articles), Annual Institute Dinner (1 article), and Exhibitions of Recordings.

Proceedings of the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools. Seattle: Francis F. Powers, Univ. of Washington. 1954. 69 pp. \$1. Includes the program and papers of speakers at the association's 37th convention, November 30-December 1-2, 1953, in Seattle. Also included is a list of the colleges, universities, and secondary schools accredited for the school year 1953-54.

RATHBONE, J. L. *Corrective Physical Education*, fifth edition. Philadelphia 5: W. B. Saunders Co. 1954. 334 pp. with 35 figures. \$4.50. The author sets forth two primary aims for his book: to convince the student of health education and physical education that one of his greatest concerns should be to help people build and maintain efficient and beautiful bodies, and to furnish the student with some basic, fundamental facts and principles upon which to build a sound program of physical education in rehabilitation. Each chapter has been revised in keeping with the wide expansion of the field since the earlier editions. The book is composed of an introduction and eight other chapters: A Practical Review of the Anatomy and Mechanics of Joint Action; A Neuromuscular Basis for Reconditioning; Faculty Development; Tension, Fatigue, and Conscious Relaxation; Exercise in Medicine; An Exercise Program for Physical Education in Rehabilitation; Recreation for the Handicapped; and Administrative Problems. Indexed.

REEDER, W. G. *School Boards and Superintendents.* New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1954. 266 pp. \$3.50. This revised edition is a manual on their powers and duties. The book has been

written mainly with the school board member in mind—oftentimes the forgotten man in school administration. The presentation is based largely upon questions and answers—276 of them. Since the chief problems of school boards are concerned with business and financial matters, the book places emphasis there. Since the answers to the questions involve working relations with the superintendent, the book naturally is of interest to him. The book is divided into 17 chapters with the subheading of each in question form. Indexed.

REILEY, C. C. *Group Fun*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1954. 312 pp. \$3.95. Leaders of girls' groups and the girls themselves will find advice plus fun in this book which presents, under one cover, both the theory and the practice of youth leadership. There are suggestions on leadership techniques, with many specific examples as well as detailed instructions for all types of activities for girls, with diagrams and drawings to point them up.

Divided into four parts for easy reference, the first section outlines the "why, how, and what" of the problems and puzzlements a leader must solve while working with groups of girls. It offers basic background material for all leadership techniques. The three remaining sections are devoted to selected activities for girls in clubrooms, out-of-doors, and in camps. They include chapters on games, music, dancing and dramatics, arts and crafts, campcraft, nature and conservation, outdoor crafts, hiking, outdoor cooking, and camping.

REINHARDT, EMMA. *American Education*. New York 16: Harper and Bros. 1954. 520 pp. \$4. This book is an introduction to education intended for college students who are preparing to be teachers. Instead of covering a large number of areas, the author has selected a limited number to which she has given more specific attention, such as: the individual as a product of the culture; educative agencies in the community; the role of the school in a democracy; modern elementary and secondary schools; what makes good teachers; opportunities in and requirements for teaching; teaching as a profession; and the development, administration, and financial support of schools in the United States. Included also is a selected list of audio-visual aids.

REMMERS, H. H.; RYDEN, E. R.; and MORGAN, C. L. *Introduction to Educational Psychology*. New York 16: Harper and Bros. 1954. 451 pp. \$4. In this book the authors use the concept of adjustment as the frame of reference for their presentation. They are concerned with what determines the adequacy of the child's adjustment, to what extent its forms can be identified, and how it is influenced by constitutional conditions, home conditions, the school, and the community. The contributions of both cultural anthropology and sociology to education are utilized. This approach is unique in a text in educational psychology. The book gives the prospective teacher insight into child nature, child problems, and the major objectives of education. The need for individualized instruction and a broadened curriculum is stressed, and individual differences are analyzed as to their origins, extent, and significance. The use of the book as a text is facilitated by a *Study Manual*, prepared by Professors Remmers and Ryden. The *Manual* follows the text, chapter by chapter, and provides a variety of study aids: problems, text items, thought questions, problem-solving techniques, audio-visual materials, and additional bibliography. It supplements the questions, discussion, topics, and bibliographies provided in the text.

RESEARCH COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF INDUSTRIAL TEACHER EDUCATORS. *Summaries of Studies in Industrial Education*. Dearborn, Michigan: Educational Services, Ford Motor Co. 1953. 183 pp. This book is essentially a 1953 supplement to the bibliography, *Studies in Industrial Education*, published in 1949 by the American Vocational Association. The book has been published and distributed by the Ford Motor Company as a service to the profession. The purpose of this publication is to provide a wide distribution of the research materials available in industrial education. The 1949 edition contained annotations

of 2,002 studies completed between January, 1930, and September, 1948. This volume contains 520 summaries of studies made from September 1948 to September 1950 and 361 annotations not included in the 1949 edition. This 1953 edition contains not only an index of this volume, but also a cumulative index of both volumes. Herein is information concerning research being carried on in colleges and universities in the fields of industrial arts, vocational-industrial, and vocational-technical education.

RICHARDSON, J. S., editor. *School Facilities for Science Instruction*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Science Teachers Assn., 1201 16th St., N. W. 1954. 274 pp. (8½" x 11") \$5.50. This is a committee report of an extensive study of rooms and teaching facilities for science on the elementary, secondary, and college levels. It includes a list of supplies and equipment; sources of furniture, equipment, and supplies; basic plans for science classrooms and laboratories; and suggestions for using community resources and audio-visual services. It is illustrated with numerous halftones and line drawings.

Many persons have brought together their knowledge, their judgment, their values, and their inspiration to serve the science interests and needs of all youth. Each member of the committee gave the project his best. The development and exchange of ideas have been so interwoven that no identification of individual contributions has been made. This volume is the latest and the most comprehensive, authoritative publication on science teaching facilities now available.

Concerned as it is with the many aspects of science teaching, this report should be useful to a wide range of persons who have responsibility for planning and teaching. School administrators, science teachers, elementary teachers, members of boards of education, and lay citizens should find help in broad principles and specific details which lead to more effective science facilities.

School plant consultants from colleges and universities, architects, science educators, science supervisors, and members of state departments of education can profitably utilize the interpretations of the needs and trends in science education. The volume should be very helpful to those in the laboratory apparatus and laboratory furniture industries as it interprets present-day needs of science instruction; it should assist them in devising increasingly effective equipment and supplies.

This volume will be used by different persons in different ways. The usual reader will read only a part of the book. Most readers will be concerned with chapters I and II and the appendix. Those who happen to be concerned only with science in the elementary school will study chapter III, as well, while the superintendent of a small school system will study, in addition, chapters III and IV. There will be many readers who will want to familiarize themselves with the entire volume. These users will find seeming duplication among some of the chapters. In the later chapters there is a small amount of near-duplication introduced to develop the broad concept of facilities for a given field. The book is divided into ten chapters and an appendix. The chapter titles are: Basic Principles Underlying Science Facilities; General Aspects of School Science Facilities; Facilities for Elementary-School Science; Facilities for the High-School Multipurpose Science Room; Facilities for High-School General Science; Facilities for High-School Biological Science; Facilities for High-School Chemistry; Facilities for High-School Physics; Facilities for Developmental, Applied, and Specialized Courses in High-School Science; and College Facilities for the Education of Science Teachers.

RUSSELL, W. F. *How To Judge a School*. New York 16: Harper and Bros. 1954. 155 pp. \$2.50. In the light of the growing interest of parents and taxpayers in making American public schools effective, the president of Teachers College, Columbia University, explains the why, what and how of the differences in educational method as between today and a generation ago. His discussions of the three R's, of vocational needs, of the claims of citizenship, of the

need for international awareness are among the highlights of his description and justification of the educational processes in better elementary and secondary schools.

SEATON, D. C.; CLAYTON, I. A.; LEIBEL, H. C.; and MESSERSMITH, LLOYD. *Physical Education Handbook*, second edition. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1954. 300 pp. \$3.50. The function of this handbook is to provide an orientation in physical education—its aims, values, and activities—adaptable to the needs of all who are interested in physical education. The book discusses the required physical education program, desirable health practices for exercise, cultural aspects of recreational sports, fundamental activities, and 26 sports. In discussing each sport, attention is given to origin and development, the nature of the game, rules, equipment, techniques and fundamentals, playing strategy, safety hints, and helpful hints.

SERBEIN, O. N., JR. *Paying for Medical Care in the United States*. New York 27: Columbia Univ. Press. 1954. 567 pp. \$7. The people of the United States spent over \$11,000,000,000 on illness in 1951. Where did this money come from? How was it used? How much of the population did it serve? What percentage of Americans prepay their medical expenses? Have schemes like Blue Cross and Blue Shield worked out to the satisfaction of doctors and hospitals as well as to the benefit of the insured? What steps can be taken so that medical prepayment plans will include general illnesses like tuberculosis and mental disease? What is the enrollment potential for all the various medical care insurance plans?

Here are the answers to these and many other questions about the way in which medical expenses are paid for in this country. The book, a mine of statistical information, includes a detailed examination of the general health of the people of the United States and all types of medical care available. It explains every kind of medical prepayment plan, elaborating on legal aspects of these plans and also on recent extensions in their coverage (some of the newer plans include coverage up to \$10,000 of expense). There are individual chapters on Blue Cross, Blue Shield, and commercial insurance plans; the operation of these plans is described and evaluated. An entire part is devoted to the role of business in providing medical care. Federal and local government programs for medical care occupy one of the book's largest sections. The book ends with provocative evaluations of problem areas and of prevention—and a prediction of possible future developments.

SISTER MARY JANET MILLER, editor. *The Integrated Curriculum at Work*. Washington 17, D. C.: The Catholic Univ. of America Press, 620 Michigan Ave., N. E. 1954. 269 pp. \$3.25. This book is the proceedings of a workshop on integration in the secondary school held at the Catholic University of America from June 12 to 23, 1953. In addition to paper reports dealing with guidance, evaluation, administration, and co-curricular activities, there are discussions of the generally common school subjects—subject by subject—relation to the integrated curriculum.

SMITH, H. P. *Psychology in Teaching*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1954. 480 pp. \$6.60. Concentrating on the facts and principles of educational psychology that offer the most promise of helping the teacher attain professional competence, Professor Smith does four things in this book: First, he identifies the problems which his survey showed are common to the experiences of teachers; second, he selects the data of educational psychology most relevant to the solution of these problems; third, he interprets those data in terms of the problems of the teacher and his pupils; and fourth, he applies the interpretations to the specific problems the teacher will meet when he acquires professional status.

Findings and theories were selected for their value in helping the teacher to (1) transform the classroom into an effective learning situation; (2) meet specific problems as they arise, and (3) make a healthy adjustment to his own living problem so as to further and not hinder the adjustments of pupils.

Fifteen professional needs of the teacher are explained in terms of problem areas in the

first chapter, and each succeeding chapter deals with actual problems in one of the areas. They all open with a preview of the problems to be discussed.

Since differences in rate and level of development are basic to many teaching problems, a great deal of the book deals with that subject—especially in connection with motivation, learning, intelligence, reading, personality, and the specific aspects of the physical, emotional, social and attitudinal development of the individual. A complete chapter is devoted to individual differences in ability to learn.

SUMMERS, R. E., editor. *Freedom and Loyalty in Our Colleges*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1954. 216 pp. \$1.75. This volume deals with the problem of a college teacher suspected of being a communist. It involves academic freedom—a freedom not spelled out in the Constitution, but one which has as much meaning and substance for education as freedom of speech and press for the general public. This volume is not offered as a solution, but as an effort to give meaning and substance to the issues involved. It contains a preponderance of material from the point of view of educators and educational groups.

VEDDAR, C. B. *The Juvenile Offender*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1954. 522 pp. This book, coming when it does, provides a wealth of source material that will be exceedingly useful to those interested in working on the great national problem. To the school administrator and teacher there is much in it that will be invaluable to them as they deal with youth in their day-to-day activities. To understand the delinquent fully, it is imperative that information be secured concerning his physical structure, his intellectual abilities, his family background, his family relationships, his school, his neighborhood, his playmates, his interests, and his activities. Out of all this knowledge can come the more important result—that of a background which should be invaluable to those concentrating upon prevention. It is generally agreed that no child is born a delinquent. Delinquency is acquired through a learning process. Therefore, the influence of his adult surroundings and his response-tendencies shape his personality. The author concludes that delinquency may be seen as a functional consequence of the type of relationship established between the personal and social controls.

This book makes available in one place a large number of carefully selected writings by specialists in juvenile delinquency. The arrangement of these selections reflects the principal divisions of the field of juvenile delinquency, which in turn are indicated in the chapter headings: The Juvenile Delinquent, The Extent of Juvenile Delinquency, Economic Conditions and Familial Factors, Community Institutions, Special Personality and Behavior Problems, Juvenile Gangs Apprehension and Detention, The Juvenile Court as an Institution, Trends in the Juvenile Court Idea, Probation, The Correctional Institution, Parole Supervision and Sponsorship, and Community Responsibility. The readings of each chapter are preceded by a brief textual discussion written to serve as a guide to the reader. Each chapter has a short but useful reference list. Indexed.

WARMAN, H. J. *Geography—Backgrounds, Techniques, and Prospects*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Edwards Brothers, Inc. 1954. 172 pp. This book contains information about the field of geography, its techniques, what it has done in the past, and what it can and proposes to do in the future. It presents the background of the subject. The early ideas and roots are outlined. Sources for wider reading and larger concepts are supplied and analyzed. The great value of geography as a "correlative science" and as a subject correlated with others throughout the educational program is treated. It provides the philosophy for the dynamic qualities in geography teaching. Practical helps on the techniques are offered.

WARTERS, JANE. *Techniques of Counseling*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1954. 392 pp. \$4.75. This text on guidance techniques covers all the commonly used techniques of student personnel work apart from group work and placement procedures. It deals specifically with tests, inventories, observation reports, self-reports, cumulative personnel records, case studies, and case conferences—all the instruments and procedures of special importance to the student personnel worker.

The text not only presents the problems of guidance but also offers suggestions for applying individual study methods in the actual school program. All the techniques considered are critically evaluated and their limitations and weaknesses discussed.

WEBER, C. A. *Personnel Problems of School Administrators*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1954. 390 pp. \$5. This book discusses the problems arising out of current educational practice, and then goes on to suggest new approaches to these problems in an effort to improve conditions. The author first locates the important problems, proceeds to establish criteria for evaluation of plans of action by locating basic principles upon which most Americans would agree, and then proposes plans of action for dealing with the problems which are consistent with the agreements. If current practice seems to be inconsistent with the principles derived, the author ignores current practice and suggests new plans of action.

The text includes the most recent research in the fields of substitute teacher service, salaries and salary scheduling, orientation of new teachers, educating teachers in service, and teacher organization. The section on salary scheduling presents a unique approach to the problem, and the teaching load has been examined in a new and vital way. New ideas on internship and teacher tensions are included.

Who Knows—and What Among Authorities, Experts, and the Specially Informed. Revised. Chicago 11: A. N. Marquis Co., Marquis Publications Bldg. 1954. 907 pp. (7½" x 10½") \$18.60. Here is a reference tool that provides pertinent career data on over 12,000 persons. They are listed alphabetically and these persons are "keyed" to over 35,000 selected subjects with which they have reported conversance. This book indexes those so listed (by means of two-number "keys") to selected subjects in the Locator Index in respect to which conversance is considered to be indicated; it segregates (based on national surveys) those its editors judge to be widely recognized as general authorities in respect to several broad fields of knowledge (as a convenient means of indicating that conversance by a general authority with any subject within his field that has been set up in the Locator Index is to be taken for granted); it has as its purpose serving the purpose, well-informed enquirer seriously interested in search out knowers in respect to a subject set up in the Locator Index, and/or obtaining counsel in connection with it, by providing him with from subject to knower reference.

WILLIAMS, P. P. *Techniques for Studying Certain School-Community Relationships*. Gainesville, Florida: Leadership Study, 314 P.K. Yonge Building, College of Education, Univ. of Fla. 1953. 183 pp. \$5. This is the first of a series of reports on the University of Florida Southern States Co-operative Program in Educational Administration on the influence of various leadership patterns of school principals upon school community relationships, pupil and teacher activities and working patterns, curriculum development, and pupil achievement. The writer's report gives case studies of relationships between school and community in four different schools, including how each feels about the other, how they use each other, how they support each other, how they inform each other, and how they participate in the life and activities of each other. Based upon these case studies, the author has developed and validated two questionnaires for use with school personnel and with parents to get information about these areas. Refinements on his sampling procedures, used in Hillsborough County, Florida, and reported in the appendix, have brought 75 to 99 per cent returns from random samples of parents, with an average return of 86 per cent of the 7,200 families from 48 schools. Copies of the *Parent Questionnaire* and *Teacher Questionnaire* and instructions for use and interpretation are included in the appendices.

WILLIAMSON, MAUDE, and LYLE, M. S. *Homemaking Education in the High School*. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts. 1954. 437 pp. \$3.75. This book, as originally written and herewith revised, is addressed largely to homemaking teachers young in experience and to those college students preparing to become homemaking teachers. The authors place emphasis on teaching as that of studying the group to be taught and the situation in which that group

lives, of determining the objectives to be sought, of making plans for reaching progress toward the chosen objectives, and of repeating, at times, certain of these activities until these objectives are successfully reached. In it he recognizes teaching as a co-operative enterprise in which pupils and often parents share responsibility. He points out the fact that increased responsibilities have been placed upon the teacher today in comparison to twenty years ago. She teaches family living not only to girls but also to boys; she is a counselor and an adviser; she may teach or supervise adult classes. Audio-visual aids receive increased emphasis in this education. In summary, the teacher sees herself not only as a classroom teacher, but also one who becomes a very definite part of the community and its on-going program of education.

Books for Pupil - Teacher Use

ABELL, ELIZABETH. *American Accent*. New York 18: Ballantine Books. 1954. 204 pp. Hardbound, \$3.50; paperbound, 35c, pocket edition. Contains fourteen stories about America today.

ABERNETHY, T. P. *The Burr Conspiracy*. New York 11: Oxford Univ. Press. 1954. 313 pp. \$6. If the extraordinary conspiracy recounted in this book had been effectively carried out, it would have altered the course of American history beyond recognition. Planned in the winter of 1806, during Jefferson's administration, the plot involved the separation of the Western part of the United States from the East in order to unite it with Spanish territory. Thus a vast new empire would have been created, with Aaron Burr as its head, for it was Burr who masterminded the grandiose scheme. Since the plot was well matured before the President took alarm, it is easy to see how it might have succeeded. But through the defection of Burr's co-conspirator, James Wilkinson, Commanding General of the United States Army, who turned state's witness, Burr was brought to trial in Richmond before Chief Justice John Marshall. He was finally acquitted on technical grounds, but the country did not believe him innocent and his public career was ended. The character of Aaron Burr is a fascinating one and in this book considerable new light is shed on his enigmatic personality. That he plotted to commit treason in collaboration with other men in high places has been a much disputed subject among historians. The author here succeeds in proving Burr's treasonable intentions beyond question. He does so by making use of much new evidence—original documents heretofore unexamined.

ALLEN, D. L. *Our Wildlife Legacy*. New York 10: Funk and Wagnalls Co. 1954. 432 pp. \$5. This is a book about the natural world which we share from sea to sea with a hundred other kinds of life—creatures of land, air, and water who are as much a part of our world as is the pattern of our geography. The author here explains what is happening among the populations of birds, mammals, and fish. Here he tells about quail, grouse, pheasants, squirrels, rabbits, raccoons, lynxes, foxes, trout, bass, bears, deer, and even mountain lions. He writes about their lives and livelihoods. Herein, the author presents the basic principles of wildlife conservation.

ALLEN, DEXTER. *Jaguar and the Golden Stag*. New York 16: Coward-McCann. 1954. 348 pp. \$3.75. In the 1400's the land we know today as Mexico was resplendent in a civilization as colorful as it was decadent. Spanish conquest was an undreamt-of possibility when the death of the Emperor Coytl brought his son, Nezahual, to the throne. With the power of the realm in the hands of an ambitious regent, the young prince must struggle to come into full possession of his inheritance. His maturity meets still another challenge at the hand of a malevolent princess. It is an engrossing story—a story that is not merely told against an exotic background; for here, through the magic of the author's skill and love of the period, an opulent world is recreated. The pungent aroma of food and drink, the glories of majestic architecture, and the horrors of human sacrifice become pulsating reality. The pageantry and intrigues of a royal court mix

vividly with the passions of an exciting ruler. A strange land rises from the mist of Lake Tezcoco, the great lake surrounded by three cities, but the driving forces of love and hate transcend time and place. This blend of scholarship and exciting narrative woven together with a touch of sheer poetry makes a memorable adventure for the reader.

ANDERSON, POUL. *Brain Wave*. New York 18: Ballantine Books, 404 Fifth Ave. 1954. 166 pp. 35c. This is a novel dealing with the future when intelligence begins at an IQ of 150. The author, using this supposition as the basis of his story, proceeds to show the consequences.

ARBUTHNOT, T. S. *African Hunt*. New York 3: W. W. Norton and Co. 1954. 279 pp. \$3.95. In the days before the super-safari of refrigerated trailers, scout planes, and decreasing game, an African hunt was an expedition such as a hunter may dream of for a lifetime. Here is the story of just such a safari by an American who lived its excitement—and understood it as only an experienced amateur hunter can. The plains and forest of Africa were crowded with game when the author, his two friends, and their guides and bearers set out into the wilds. There were both the great and the small—the elephant and the honey-bird, the lion and the dik-dik, the buffalo, rhinoceros, leopard, zebra, and all the other wild creatures that made Africa the hunter's paradise it was.

ARNOLD-BAKER, C., and DENT, ANTHONY, compilers. *Dictionary of Dates*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1954. 428 pp. \$4.50. This work provides a handy dictionary of no less than 36,000 dates covering all important world events from earliest times to the present day. The entries, arranged in one alphabetical sequence, are, broadly speaking, of two kinds—single-subject articles, which are in the overwhelming majority, and group entries, of which there are some 300. The group entries are of many varieties—battles, treaties, academies, cathedrals, earthquakes, livery companies, newspapers, assassinations, royal commissions, but for the most part they are lists of famous men, their dates of birth and death, arranged by such categories as artists, scientists, presidents (of all sovereign republics), sovereigns of monarchical states, statesmen, authors (under the language in which they wrote), explorers, soldiers, sailors, airmen, music composers, heresiarchs. There are about 8,600 single-subject articles, ranging in length from a mere cross-reference to the article on, say, China, which runs to nearly 2,000 words.

ARON, RAYMOND. *The Century of Total War*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1954. 379 pp. \$5. The world is in a state of limited war in the century of total war. The author—Europe's foremost political thinker—presents a survey of the forces that have created this situation today and are at work on the creation of tomorrow's. He advances the argument that wars today involving major powers can only be total because of technical expansion, the uses of propaganda, and the magnitude of the stakes. Tracing the chain of events that led from Sarajevo to Panmunjom, he analyzes the reversal of existing orders after both world wars, and examines the implications in the appearance of a new force in world politics—the USSR—a nation based on a philosophy hostile to all other existing systems and the seat of a secular religion dedicated to conquering the world. Today Europe's democracies are economically and politically weak, and Asia is in revolt. The world, in effect, is bi-polar, dominated by two giant powers, who face each other across the earth, girding their loins for the final contest. The author believes that the moment of conflict has long since arrived. The question remains: Is the cold war a preparation or a substitute for total war?

BAKER, CHARLOTTE. *The Venture of the Thunderbird*. New York 17: David McKay Co. 1954. 256 pp. \$3. The story takes place in the early days of the fur trade, when small American vessels sailed around the Horn to the wild northwest coast of America to make up a cargo for the China market. The cast of characters is varied and picturesque; an African witch-woman in Brazil; the savage Chief Tom-Tom and his people of the northwest coast; Hyppolite, the faithful cabin boy of the *Thunderbird*; Benjamin, the runaway slave; and Ching, the Chinese

exile. Not to be forgotten also are the penguins of the Galapagos, the monkey called Breakfast, Kowi the raven, and Mimbo, the turnspit dog.

BARNHART, C. L., and HALSEY, W. D. *The New Century Cyclopedia of Names*. 3 volumes. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts. 1954. 4370 pp (7½" x 11") \$39.50. This is a new kind of reference work based on the names that have made news from the dawn of history to the present day. It has been in preparation for seven years and cost over half a million dollars. It consists solely of information about proper names—people, events, places, ideas, achievements, art, literature, music, words of fiction, plays, operas, mythological and legendary places, etc.—arranged alphabetically by names. The committee in developing this book took over 500,000 names as a master list. These were classified under 1,248 categories and the terms or names in each category were subjected to analysis against standard textbooks in each field. Specialists assisted in helping to write articles on all the names that were retained in each category. These three volumes contain over 100,000 entries, over 1,000,000 specific facts alphabetically arranged with over 20,000 cross references. Contained within these three volumes are the names of about 25,000 cities, towns, and countries; 6,000 industrialists; 6,000 scholars; 9,000 composers, artists, and musicians; 7,500 military leaders; 7,500 scientists and medical leaders; 8,000 religious personages; 9,000 great books and plays; 12,000 political leaders; 5,000 mythological terms; and thousands of other persons, places, ideas, etc. This cyclopedia provides a quick source of information upon almost any idea, place, etc. that warrants even a limited amount of attention. In addition to the cyclopedia of proper names, there are: a chronological table of world history; a list of rulers, chiefs of state, and other notables by countries of the world; a list of the states of the United States (with their admission dates) and of the Confederacy (with their dates of recession); genealogical charts of the rulers of several countries; a list of the member nations of the United Nations; a list of the Popes of the Catholic church with their dates of consecration; a geological table; and a list of prenames used in this work, with pronunciations.

BEIM, JERROLD. *Who's Who in Your Family*. New York 21: Franklin Watts. 1954. 68 pp. \$2.50. Everybody loves a family album. This is the album of Chris Green with pictures by Mary Stevens. It contains the many ordinary as well as important occasions in his young life.

BERGENGRUEN, WERNER. *The Last Captain of Horse*. New York 17: Vanguard Press. 1953. 304 pp. \$3.00. This is a novel, recollections of a retired Captain of Horse, who in our own times stands as the last representative of the age of chivalry. In this book are courtliness and magnanimity, buffoonery and nobility, Don Quixote and Tartarin, horses and heroes, and the great deeds of cavaliers. The Captain of Horse, now almost a legendary figure, after a long career in the service of the Czar, has settled down in the picturesque countryside of the north Italian Lakes to meander among his memories. He gives full rein to his imagination, evokes another continent, another century, in a host of stories. There is a memorable portrait of an old hussar, an almost Saki-like story on the meaning of presenting arms, a very sly extension on the duties of a sentry, and the glorious memories of a lifetime.

BERK, BARBARA. *The First Book of Stage Costume and Make-Up*. New York 21: Franklin Watts. 1954. 46 pp. \$1.75. This book contains helpful suggestions on where and how to start in costuming; how to costume simply and inexpensively; how to collect and use make-up; how to create historical, foreign, and animal costumes; how to start a make-up room, and many other activities in this work. Pictures are by Jeanne Bendick.

BIRCH, C. E., and KLINE, V. W. *Applied Business Calculation*, third edition. New York 18: Gregg Pub. Co. 1954. 192 pp. \$1.60. This edition is a complete modernization of the standard text for teaching the fundamentals of rapid calculation that are within the range of every student. It covers the fundamental operations—addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and fractions, as well as decimals, percentage, interest, and a wide range of practical

applications. Throughout the book emphasis has been placed on arithmetic calculations rather than explanations of business procedures and forms. With its convenient 90-drill-and-test-arrangement, the book can be used as a basic text in remedial arithmetic, in rapid calculation, or as a part of courses in general business, clerical practice, and bookkeeping. Features of this third edition include: a comprehensive drill-test pattern; practical application and illustration of installment buying, cash discount on partial payments and with bank loans; emphasis on estimating and checking answers and practical shortcuts; and problem material.

BLIVEN, BRUCE, JR. *The Wonderful Writing Machine*. New York 22: Random House. 1954. 252 pp. \$3.95. Try to imagine the business world before the invention of the typewriter—letters written in longhand, no women employees, duplicate copies of letters made by pressing another sheet against the wet ink on the original copy. And then look at American business today—with 2,500,000 girls typing for a living—with more women working at typing than anything else! Until publication of this sprightly book, few people have known much about typewriters and their role in American life. Yet the typewriter has revolutionized communications, helped in the expansion of business, increased profits, saved time, transformed the appearance of offices, and influenced the language. Here is the story of the typewriter—from its earliest beginnings right down to the present day.

BLUM, J. M. *The Republican Roosevelt*. Cambridge 38, Mass.: Harvard Univ. Press. 1954. 192 pp. \$3.50. This is a book about politics and politicians; about elections, lawmaking, governing, and how they work. It is also about power, its increasing concentration in American society, and its implications at home and abroad—especially for those who exercise it. It is a book about the Republican Party during the period in which it developed the forces and frictions which still characterize it today. Finally, it is a book about a remarkably successful and vibrant man who contained within himself much of the best and the worst of his environment, who contributed generously to American life, who knew in his time disappointment, temptation, and pain, but also glory; a man remembered most by his intimates for the "fun of him."

BOND, F. F. *An Introduction to Journalism*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1954. 358 pp. \$4.50. The aim of this book is to serve as an introduction to American journalism. Accordingly, it takes account of all those agencies through which news and views, each separately or hand in hand, reach the general public—our present-day vast system of mass communication. Chief emphasis has been put upon the written and the spoken word as the foundation stones upon which the whole fabric of communication rests. In addition, the author has striven to give his readers an understanding of new technological miracles such as facsimile reproduction, the teletypesetter, and the "actuality" reporting of television—developments which make journalistic transmission almost instantaneous. The book is divided into 24 chapters.

BOUQUET, A. C. *Everyday Life in New Testament Times*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1953. 255 pp. \$3.50. Here is an account of how people lived in the Mediterranean world in the first century of the Christian era. It is a book of history which tells, not of kings and battles and laws, but of families like that to which the reader belongs, who were living at the time of our Lord: the kind of houses they lived in, the clothes they wore, how they travelled and communicated with each other, their meals, schools, and places of worship. It will be seen that their lives were much more like ours than we would have expected.

BOWEN, B. M. *One Against the Sea*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co. 1954. 224 pp. \$2.75. The first day Bill comes from America to the little Yorkshire fishing village he has a fight with three local boys over a drifting boat he had salvaged from the pounding sea. In the scrap he hurts the weakest one and he is off to a bad start with his new neighbors. Bill sets about repairing the boat, getting a job with the fishing fleet, and taking his place as man of the family with grit and determination. The English boys do not make it easy for him, and as the sea wall in front of his home begins to crumble he does not know which task to tackle first. Then on a night of a terrible storm Bill helps the fishing fleet, saves the reckless pair

stealing his boat. When the sea strikes the house, he steers the boat as it carries them to safety on the crest of a tidal wave.

BRADY, R. G. *Jane Cameron, Schoolmarm*. New York 16: Abelard-Schuman, 381 Fourth Ave. 1954. 203 pp. \$2.50. A librarian who read this book in manuscript form said: "For older girls interested in teaching as a career, this story has much to offer. It is very evident that the author knows her subject." It is an excellent career story, but it has much more to offer than that—to older girls and older boys, too. It's a good story, whether or not you are interested in teaching as a career, with lots of excitement and suspense, and even a touch of romance. Jane Cameron has lived all of her twenty-two years in a big city. Suddenly she finds that she has to learn the ways of a small town at the same time as she learns how to be a teacher. She had hoped to teach the lower grades until she felt sure of herself, but she is offered a job in Groversville, teaching high-school English, and she takes it. She finds herself confronted with many problems—a girl student who is jealous of her, a basketball scandal, plagiarism, a boy student who gets himself into serious trouble and gets Jane in trouble, too. Eventually, all the problems get solved and Jane becomes adjusted to her new life. The reader will share all Jane's troubles and triumphs and will feel that all the characters are people he or she knows well.

BRANDON, DOROTHY. *Mamie Doud Eisenhower*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1954. 317 pp. \$3.75. This story springs from the memories of scores of people, all of whom have helped the author to reconstruct the record of a life. Mrs. Eisenhower has given the author many hours of her time in this writing.

BRIDGE, L. W. *Parliamentary Procedure*. New York 10: Funk and Wagnalls Co. 1954. 192 pp. \$3. This is a modern, authoritative guide to the proper conduct of all kinds of meetings. It is a book that is brief and, therefore, of real use to those responsible for the conduct of student council meetings. Designed for both the beginner and the expert, this manual presents the techniques of parliamentary procedure in a step-by-step manner, with illustrations and applications of the principles involved at each point along the way, thus making for clarity, quick reference, and easy study. The author is currently a teacher in the Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois. He has spent twelve years in preparing this book from first-hand experience. He provides models for clarification and guidance on most of the problems that can arise in the conduct of a meeting. Six model meetings illustrate every type of motion. The book also has an index, a cross-reference system, and a table of motions and their order of precedent.

BRODERICK, E. B. *Your Place in TV*. New York 17: David McKay Co. 1954. 156 pp. \$2.75. Across the country thousands of high-school and college students are asking the question: "How can I get into television?" In this book the author presents information about this field and the qualifications required for its many-faceted jobs. The author does not believe it is easy to get into TV, but he does believe that there are many opportunities in it and that it presents a great challenge to young men and women with talent and creative ability and a willingness to work hard. He shows how they may use these qualities to their best advantage in TV. TV needs not only the before-camera or behind-camera experts, but also writers, admen, dolly pushers, secretaries, clerks, salesmen, demonstrators, graphic artists, librarians, make-up men, bookkeepers, researchers, leg-men, desk-men, and many other jobs not ordinarily associated with TV.

BROKENSHIRE, NORMAN. *This Is Norman Brokenshire*. New York 17: David McKay. 1954. 311 pp. \$3.50. "How do you do, ladies and gentlemen, how do you do." Millions have heard these words, but few know the amazing story of the man who made them famous. Here is a portrait of the man behind the voice. Brokenshire had an unfortunate childhood compounded of ignorance, confusion, and rebellion. Driven by fear of his minister father, he struggled unsuccessfully to develop and express his own personality. Finally he drifted into radio—then in its infancy—and was an immediate success. After long years of deprivation the

fame and popularity radio brought him was more than he could take, and he started drinking. At the peak of his career, Brokenshire became the slave of alcohol. From 1931 to 1944 he went through a kaleidoscopic series of comebacks and collapses, and his life was an unending struggle with poverty, alcohol, and professional ostracism. Not until 1944 when he became associated with a unique fellowship based on age-old spiritual principles did he begin the final climb back. Then in 1945 the break came—radio's announcing plum, U. S. Steel's Theater Guild on the Air, was offered to Brokenshire, the bad boy of radio. He accepted the challenge, and today his position at the top of his profession is secure.

BRYHER. *Roman Wall*. New York 14: Pantheon Books, 333 Sixth Ave. 1954. 219 pp. \$2.75. The time is the third century of the Christian era, the place is the Roman frontier in Helvetia, present-day Switzerland. Valerius, an officer banished because of a woman to the lonely outpost of Orba, is aware of the threat: he knows that beyond the Rhine a flood of barbarians is ready to overrun the section of the "rim of earth" he is guarding. Raiders penetrate into his territory, and the women of his household are frightened by arrowheads they find in the hills. Valodius, governor of Aventicum, is lulled into a false sense of security by the ease of life in the provincial capital. He thinks of his mistress, his debts, the gladiatorial games. And finally there is Demetrius, the Greek trader, shrewd, resourceful, knowledgeable. When disaster strikes, it is he who makes his escape from the city and leads the little Roman band from Orba to safety.

BURNS, E. E.; VERWIEBE, F. L.; HAZEL, H. C.; and VAN HOOFT, G. E. *Physics—A Basic Science*, third edition. New York 3: D. Van Nostrand Co. 1954. 558 pp. \$4.12. In the revision of this high-school text, the authors have kept in mind the needs and interests of pupils. The language is simple, clear, and direct. They have drawn from familiar experiences the fundamental principles of physics necessary for an understanding of the many applications of this basic science in our modern civilization. The subject matter has been divided into ten teaching blocks or units which serve to highlight the key areas of physics: molecular physics; fluids; forces and motions; machines, energy, and power; sound; light; principles of magnetism and electricity; electricity at work; and electronics and nuclear physics.

The units are divided into 27 chapters, each of which considers several closely related principles of physics. For greater ease of understanding and administration, the chapters are further divided into 83 short topics—each topic presenting a single principle with its many applications. At the end of each topic there is a wide variety of teaching aids: Check Your Understanding, Summary Questions, General Questions, Students' Projects, and Problems. Each topic is a self-contained teaching unit with its own learning aids. These include student projects, lists of important terms and formulas introduced in the topic, summary questions, general questions, and more than seven hundred and fifty problems on two levels of difficulty. Additional review problems are found at the ends of chapters.

BUTLER, K. B. *Headline Design*. Mendota, Ill.: Butler Typo-Design Research Center. 1954. 96 pp. (8½" x 11") \$3.75. This illustrated handbook, Number Two in a series, is written to enlarge the scope of an editor's work. The book is practical as well as creative in that it provides a storehouse of ideas and techniques which will enable an editor or layout man to improve his product. Handbook Number One deals with illustrations, while this one discusses the role of the headline in publication layout.

CARROLL, J. S. *Photography with the Graflex 22*. New York 17: Morgan and Lester, 101 Park Ave. 1954. 128 pp. \$3. This new Morgan and Lester publication, based on the popular Graflex 22 camera, tells all the best ways to make better pictures with a twin-lens reflex camera. It will increase the fun in picture taking for everyone who has a 2½ x 2¼ camera and wants to understand enough about photography to know what happens when he pushes the button. The most important principles of photography are explained in easy, non-technical language. The reader learns what the lens and shutter settings do and how to adjust them for the right exposure. He learns how to choose and use films and filters, how to light pictures indoors and out, how to

use flash, how color films work, and how to make exciting color pictures. With the confidence that comes of knowing what he's doing and how the photographic process works, the reader then turns to the real content of pictures—and how to take the kind of pictures he really wants. Composition is explained in a new way—as ideas, not rules. And there are lots of helpful tips for making better portraits, action shots, still-lives, and priceless mementos for the family album.

CARSON, GERALD. *The Old Country Store*. New York 11: Oxford Univ. Press. 1954. 346 pp. \$5. The hero of this book is the American-invented general storekeeper, the merchant who, in an unspecialized society, bartered store goods for local produce and underwrote the crops of a simple agricultural society. He could write a letter for a customer, draw a note, extract a bean from a boy's nose, lead the militia company, make the eagle scream on Independence Day, head the affairs of school and lodge, branch out as a small capitalist with a grist mill, or take a flyer in tan bark or shingles. The store stove gave the community a center, heart, and nerves. The rural merchant was our first great civilizer, for a crossroads might get along without a doctor or lawyer but no scattering of houses could ever hope to become a village without a store.

As President Eisenhower told a meeting of retail merchants, "Now, particularly if you came from the smaller towns and villages—farming areas of our country—you have memories that are priceless. They so often centered around the retail store, the open cracker barrel, the prune barrel, the pickle jug or keg."

The author here describes, with all the humor, nostalgia, and flavor of his subject, the place of the country store in the cultural life of the small communities that once were America—pre-urban and pre-automobile. Stores then served as meeting place, post office, and community center. It is a fascinating account of general retail merchandising from 1790 to 1921, drawn chiefly from primary material, hundreds of old store account books and records, manuscripts, almanacs, diaries of country merchants, old newspapers, and county histories. The story is rich in personalities, anecdotes, and folklore. The author evokes the sights, sounds, smells, and reflects the color and atmosphere of the old country stores. He describes the products they handled and the changes that came in merchandising. Included is historical material never before brought together on the rise of the breakfast-food industry and a definite account of the end of bulk selling and the rise of trade-marked, advertised merchandise in the modern consumer package. The author describes the local merchant's purchasing trips to distant cities, the wandering peddlers, the ubiquitous traveling drummer with his yarns and conquests, and includes many tall tales and local wonders of country life.

CATTON, BRUCE. *U. S. Grant and the American Military Tradition*. Boston 6: Little, Brown, and Co. 1954. 211 pp. \$3. This is the first book to be published in the new Library of American Biography, edited by Oscar Handlin, professor of history at Harvard and winner of the Pulitzer Prize for *The Uprooted*. "Ulysses S. Grant was a man superbly fitted by character and background for his role as military leader," writes Dr. Handlin in the preface to the author's study of Grant, the general and the President. "He moved unsteadily into the nation's highest office in the period of confusion and great change after the Civil War. But as a civilian the very qualities that made him a great soldier proved a liability. His career thus throws light on a large section of American history. It may also, by analogy, illuminate some of the problems of a later postwar era, which in 1953 again saw a general enter the White House."

CAUDILL, REBECCA. *The House of the Fifers*. New York 3: Longman's, Green and Co. 1954. 192 pp. \$2.75. Fifteen-year-old Monica is furious when her father insists on her spending the summer with her relatives, the Fifers, on their Kentucky farm. Five years ago, as a girl of ten, she had loved it and adored her cousin Nancy, the same age. But now Nancy's letters are full of 4-H projects and it seems impossibly dull to be buried in the country, far away from her crowd's gay parties, rides in a red convertible, and a report card full of C's and D's. The farm is just as dull as Monica feared. There seems nothing for her to do, although her cousins are always working at something. Worse, a terrible drought has burned the grain in the fields, and things are going

hard for the Fifers. Yet, in spite of herself, Monica is drawn into the daily life. She discovers she wants the approval of her older cousin, Corky, but she has to gain it the hard way. With her wise aunt to guide her, she begins to fit in.

CAWTHRA, LILLIAN. *Lure of the West*. New York 1: Vantage Press. 1954. 238 pp. \$3.50. Cattle stampedes, Indian raids, gun fighting, buffalo hunting, broncho busting, barroom brawls—they are all here in abundance in this tale of the Wild West of the 1870s. And there's romance for those who prefer a bit of heart interest in their Westerns. Tex, Smoky and Johnny—cowboys from the Green Valley Ranch in Texas—are the three leading characters. Many are the adventures that befall the intrepid trio on their trek across the prairie to Abilene, Kansas, to sell their herd of cattle. Once, there, they become involved in feudin' and flirtin', risking their handsome necks time and again.

CHAPIN, E. V. *Heavy Water*. New York: Abelard-Schuman, 381 Fourth Ave. 1954. 192 pp. \$2.50. This is a story of high adventure—with authentic historical background. Three teenagers decide to spend their summer vacation on a canoe trip, exploring the Minnesota border chain of lakes. They have read accounts of some mysterious waters somewhere in this region. Harold Usher reasons that this peculiar quality is a result of uranium ore dissolved in the water and he plans the expedition, with visions of a fortune. Nick Thomas goes along because he has always had a "soft" life and wants an opportunity to see some new country and to rough it. Archer Davis is older than the other boys, has already done some trail blazing, and goes on the trip just because he knows he will enjoy it. More than once the other two boys have occasion to be grateful for his knowledge of the woods and his quick wit. There are scores of adventures, and many interesting people are met along the way. They find the "heavy water" after some rough going, but it's quite different from what they'd expected. They also find a treasure—again, something quite different from what they'd expected. In addition to having their thrilling adventures, the boys learn a lot of geography and history—and a lot about true moral values.

CHIDSEY, D. B. *Lord of the Isles*. New York 16: Crown Publishers. 1954. 287 pp. \$3. Johnny Lamb couldn't stop living long enough to clear his name of a murder charge in Connecticut. Instead, he took to a whaling ship and wound up in the Sandwich Islands (now called Hawaii) not only as a successful merchant of goods and liquor but as common-law king to the reigning Queen Kaahumanu. He had a superb lust for life which he rarely denied, but he had respect for people, their rights and beliefs. He had become informal lord of the exotic Islands, master of their fate as well as his own—when he met Ann Mathewson. Ann was the very young widow of one of America's first Christian missionaries in Hawaii.

CHILDS, MARQUIS, and CATER, DOUGLASS. *Ethics in a Business Society*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1954. 192 pp. 35¢ pocket edition. Is religion still meaningful in twentieth-century industrial life? This question is the heart of a six-volume study done under the sponsorship of the National Council of Churches. The authors studied the findings of the six Harper volumes; the result is a 192-page book in which they have included all the significant ideas contained in the monumental study. A Mentor pocket-size book.

CLAUSEN, L. W. *Insect Fact and Folklore*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1954. 208 pp. \$3.50. Usually, a book dealing with entomology is written from the angle of insects alone. This book deals with insects and people and is the result of fifteen years of research in bringing together insect facts, folklore, superstitions, products, and the many uses to which insects have been put throughout the world. Its main purpose is to overcome the repugnance that most lay persons have towards insects, to make people aware of the fact that the majority of insects are interesting, necessary, and do play an important part in the everyday life of all peoples.

Collier's 1954 Year Book. New York: P. F. Collier and Son, Division of the Crowell-Collier Pub. Co. 1954. 695 pp. (7½" x 10½"). This book covers national and international events of the year 1953. It was prepared by leading authorities in the various fields included and under

the supervision of William T. Couch, Editor-in-Chief of *Collier's Encyclopedia*. This volume presents, in words and pictures, all of the more important developments of the year 1953, domestic and foreign, in all of those fields of human activity in which anything noteworthy has occurred that might affect basic articles in *Collier's Encyclopedia*. Among the thousands of topics covered in this book, the following are representative: academic freedom and educational standards, the *pros* and *cons* on McCarthy, Red China, the case of Harry Dexter White, Conservatism censorship, regionalism, social science, the various countries of the world, industry, famous personages, and income and products of each of our states. This book with its comprehensive index will be found a valuable source for up-to-date information on events in the year 1953.

COMMAGER, H. S. *Freedom, Loyalty, Dissent*. New York 11: Oxford Univ. Press. 1954. 165 pp. \$2.50. Here is a book to penetrate the smog of fear and suspicion that has risen around present-day thinking on political, social, and ethical matters. The author, who has written widely on American history and politics, is an implacable foe of those forces which are seeking to destroy traditional American liberties while pretending to serve them. In five essays, originally written as articles or lectures and now substantially enlarged, he looks at recent phenomena such as loyalty purges, the irresponsible smearing of individuals by Congressmen and others, the wholesale labeling of organizations as "subversive," the growing conviction that treason is somehow contagious, and the apathy of most citizens toward their constitutional rights; and he presents the issues at stake more clearly than they have ever been presented before. The five essays are entitled "The Necessity of Freedom," "The Necessity of Experimentation," "Free Enterprise in Ideas," "Guilt by Association," and "Who Is Loyal to America?"

COOLEY, D. G. *The Science Book of Wonder Drugs*. New York 21: Franklin Watts. 1954. 255 pp. \$2.95. Did you realize that 90 per cent of the doctors' prescriptions taken to pharmacists today could not have been filled in 1935 because one or more of the prescribed drugs were then unknown? Here is the absorbing story of the modern pharmaceutical revolution which is changing man's life. For the first time in human history scientists are beginning to understand the intricate chemical processes that go on inside the minute cells of the body. In these complex operations lie the secrets of why and how drugs work, and the key to drugs yet undiscovered which may someday be "made to order" to overcome diseases now mysterious and fatal. The author tells the story of drugs already developed—sulfas, antibiotics, vitamins, and hormones, as well as a variety of others for the treatment of specific illnesses. In addition he summarizes work in progress, and offers thrilling glimpses of drugs foreshadowed for the future which may conquer cancer, polio, and other diseases now baffling to mankind.

CRILE, JANE and BARNEY. *Treasure-Diving Holidays*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1954. 279 pp. \$3.95. This is the story of one family's experiences in the exciting sport of exploring beneath the surface of the sea. From Jane and Barney's first adventures with a home-designed diving helmet of the most murderous characteristics, the story moves through a succession of vivid scenes and absorbing incidents, to the days when they and the children—Ann, Joan, Susie, and George—felt as much at home in the sea as on dry land.

CURRENT, R. N. *The Typewriter and the Men Who Made It*. Urbana: Univ. of Illinois Press. 1954. 162 pp. \$3.50. This book is a comprehensive history of the early development of the typewriter invented by Christopher Latham Scholes, a former newspaper publisher. It is a fascinating story based on research and includes unused correspondence between the inventor and the first promoter, James Densmore, who saw a chance to make a fortune out of Scholes' "new-fangled writing machine."

DANIEL, HAWTHORNE, and MINOT, FRANCIS. *The Inexhaustible Sea*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1954. 269 pp. \$4. Among the myriad swarms of underwater creatures lies the answer to the most challenging question of the century: How can we feed the world's hungry millions, both living and yet unborn? While the world's population continues its steady rise, we have found that the workable soil has its limits. Yet the teeming waters of the oceans, in

which life in thousands of forms abounds and steadfastly propagates, are virtually untapped as a source of food. The fish and other food products that are annually harvested and distributed are no more, in relation to the potential haul, than a handful of sand to a mountain. In this fascinating volume the authors open the door to a whole new watery world of potential abundance and productivity—and everything about the sea bears upon its productivity. The waves and currents, the chemicals, the amazing convolutions of the ocean bottom, the algae and the plankton, and the multitudinous forms of microscopic life all play their part, as well as the big and small fish, the crustaceans and the water animals. All of them are related to our problem for, with the marvelous inter-relatedness of all natural laws, the currents circulate the chemicals, the chemicals feed the plankton, the plankton feed the fish—and the fish feed men.

DELANO, MARGARET. *How To Be a Top Secretary*. Atlanta: Tupper and Love, 1090 Capitol Ave., S. E. 1954. \$3.95. This book gives not only all the essential "whats" of the secretarial job but goes a step further and tells "how." The manner, attitude, personality and human relation factors behind specific "hows" are covered in the concise text. The author has recognized the distinctive relationship which exists between employer and secretary. She has utilized her own experience and that of other experienced secretaries as well as the experience of those who have made successful careers in the training of secretaries. Throughout she has had the editorial cooperation of Paul W. Allison, dean of Packard Junior College, New York.

DEUTSCHER, ISAAC. *The Prophet Armed*. New York 11: Oxford Univ. Press. 1954. 552 pp. \$6. Hardly any political figure in this century has aroused so much passionate and confused controversy as Trotsky. Stalin denounced him as Hitler's accomplice; he denounced Stalin as the arch-betrayer of the revolution. For three decades the Trotskyist "heresy" haunted Stalin, and the desire to expunge Trotsky from the memory of a whole generation has been behind the prodigious endeavor to rewrite Soviet history. The purpose of the author's work is to restore the historical balance. Trotsky is portrayed as the most romantic, heroic, and tragic character in the revolution. The whole path of his development is traced: his early activities, the formation and crystallization of his distinctive and motivating idea—the permanent revolution—his long feud and final reconciliation with Lenin and Bolshevism, and his role in the October insurrection of 1917. He is shown also as the first diplomat of the revolution and as the founder of the Red Army. The narrative in this volume ends with 1921, when Trotsky, then at the climax of power, unwittingly sowed the seeds of his downfall. A second volume, *The Prophet Unarmed*, will deal with the later life of Trotsky and with the events leading to his assassination.

DEVANESEN, CHANDRAN. *The Cross Is Lifted*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1954. 80 pp. \$1.50 clothbound; \$1 paperbound. These poems speak of India and India's people. Of his poems, the author expresses the hope that they may "bring understanding and mutual appreciation between India and the United States."

DIOLÉ, PHILIPPE. *4000 Years Under the Sea*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1954. 258 pp. \$4.50. Translated from the French by Gerard Hopkins. Before this book was published there was no literature of marine archaeology. Mr. Diolé is a founder of this new science. Calling on technical experts—zoologists, geologists, archaeologists and historians—to aid him, Diolé set out to solve part of an ever-growing puzzle. He knew that remnants of classical civilizations were constantly being fished from the ocean floor, and he determined to examine similar finds in their marine settings. Through an intriguing series of calculations, he was able to place the relics in their correct historical moments, and to reconstruct the dramatic stories of their submersion.

DOUGLAS, DONALD. *The Huguenot*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1954. 384 pp. \$5. In this volume, the author tells the story of the Huguenot migrations to America, centering his account in the life of Apollos Rivoire, the father of Paul Revere. It is a dramatic story that reveals the rich and valuable strain which the Huguenot migration added to American civilization. Apollos Rivoire, who eventually Anglicized his name, was the young son of a Huguenot

family who came to Boston in his youth to become an American in the full sense of the word, yet whose ways of thinking and outlook on life were deeply rooted in the French Huguenot tradition. Chronologically, the book divides itself into three parts. The first deals with the Rivoire family in France, living in the vineyard country around Bordeaux a life of charm, simplicity, and moral soundness, yet forced through persecutions to send their son to a New World. The second section of the book deals with Apollos Rivoire's journey to America, with a stop in the Channel Isles with an uncle. The long sea voyage followed, with Apollos reaching colonial Boston under apprenticeship to the famous silversmith, John Coney. The final section deals with Apollos Rivoire's life in colonial America and gives a colorful and wonderfully complete picture of every phase of New England life as it unfolded before the young Huguenot's eyes and including delightful stories and anecdotes of eighteenth-century Boston.

DOUGLASS, P. F. *Six Upon the World*. Boston 6: Little, Brown, and Co. 1954. 453 pp. \$4.95. This book explores the problems related to the growth of an American culture adequate to meet the responsibilities of a heavily industrialized society in an age of advanced technology.

As the tool of his analysis, the author uses the life histories of six men who have acted powerfully within the framework of some one institutional pattern—commerce, revolutionary socialism, the modern corporation, the trade-union, the Roman Catholic church, and the laboratory and the university. The men whom he selects for his inquiry are Paul G. Hoffman, chairman of the board of the Studebaker Corporation; William Z. Foster, chairman of the national committee of the Communist Party of the United States; Alfred P. Sloan, Jr., chairman of the board of General Motors Corporation; Walter Reuther, president of the UAW-CIO, and of CIO; Francis Cardinal Spellman, archbishop of New York; and James B. Conant, United States High Commissioner for Germany and for twenty years president of Harvard University.

By a method which is partly clinical and partly a case-history approach, the six narrative chapters show how Americans in a few brief decades have been led step by step from local living in their own uncomplicated back yards into a deep concern for the big and complex society in which modern man feels himself so deeply troubled.

While this book talks about the life histories of men, it is primarily concerned with the conflict of ideas, past and present—ideas which are even now working to provide America with a culture suitable to our age of giant industry. *Six Upon the World* is an economic and social history of American industrial society, seen from six widely different, yet vital, points of view—a history of a society steadily making its way toward a new equilibrium with a solid philosophy and a common faith.

DRAGNICH, A. N. *Tito's Promised Land*. New Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers Univ. Press. 1954. 311 pp. \$5.75. For the many Americans who have begun to wonder just how good an ally Tito is, this book does much to erase the question mark which Yugoslavia has become to East and West alike. How communism came to Yugoslavia, what it is doing to the country and its people, what it intends to do—these are the substance of this book. The author's story of life in Titoland is the first to be written by an American scholar. It is an eyewitness account, based in part on observations made during several years of residence in Yugoslavia and on conversations with thousands of Yugoslavs both in and out of Tito's government.

DUBLIN, HARRY. *Hail, Alma Pater*. New York 11: Hermitage House. 1954. 287 pp. \$3. A father sees his son through all the phases of a prep school education. He coaches him for his first interview with the headmaster of Fairfield School. He sets him up as a home aquarist. He makes cracks about Sybil Walker's dancing class where Addison's feud with Gwenn Parness starts. He is patient when Addison gets into peril with a "hot-rod" schoolmate. He more than collaborates in Addison's desperate attempts to gain admission to a college of his choice. Late at night he toils over the writing of a speech for Addison to deliver on graduation night. If Fairfield School is Addison's alma mater, Mr. Beech is certainly his alma pater. The story is illustrated by

twenty drawings by E. Malsberg, a former *Stars and Stripes* artist, now a free-lance artist for *Time*, *Woman's Day*, and other magazines.

DUGGAN, ALFRED. *The Lady for Ransom*. New York 16: Coward-McCann. 1914. 282 pp. \$3.50. Roussel de Balliol, the foxy red-haired commander of a mercenary troop of heavily mailed and mounted Frankish warriors, roamed the known world of the High Middle Ages in search of lands to conquer and hold as his own. With his ambitious wife, Matilda, he sets out, in 1069, on a battle march which leads him to the eastern rim of the world and high adventure. In Asia Minor the outposts of Christian civilization were crumbling before the advance of the infidel Turks. Roussel and his troops, in the service of the fabulous Emperor of Constantinople, battle the Mohammedan hordes for control of the rich provinces of the Turkish peninsula. In the anarchy which follows the battle of Manzikert, a gigantic struggle of one hundred thousand horsemen in which the military power of the Emperor is crushed, Roussel and Matilda set themselves up as rulers of three Roman provinces.

DU MAURIER, DAPHNE. *Mary Anne*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co. 1954. 351 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of a girl who sparked the liveliest scandal ever to rock the House of Commons. She spent her childhood in London. She assisted her father reading proof when he was too ill to hold his job in a printer's shop. She then began to write for London newspapers to eke out a livelihood for her four children and her worthless husband. She becomes an influence in the life of the Duke of York. With his influence as Chief of His Majesty's Army, she gained promotions for persons in the army. As a result there was an investigation of the Duke by the House of Commons. And so begins the story of one of the most relentless exposés in the history of political connivery.

DUNCAN, DAVID. *Dark Dominion*. New York 18: Ballantine Books. 1954. 216 pp. Hardbound, \$3.50; paperbound, 35c, pocket edition. This novel takes the reader into the world of that very near future where science is already at work. It is the story of a tremendous race for supremacy above the earth, and of men and women who have devoted their lives to the assault on the last great frontier—the conquest of space.

DUNN, IRMA. *Yesterday Is Real*. New York 16: Exposition Press. 1954. 223 pp. \$3.50. This novel of life in a small community lifts the veil from the face of a "dormant" village to reveal the complex joys and stark tragedy that eternally walk together in the rural places where "nothing ever happens." Avoiding the somber tone of those earlier studies in Americana, however, the author gives backward glance at those wonderful turn-of-the-century days, when small-town living was the rule and people led unruffled, pleasant lives. Densville, with its neighborliness, good humor, and quaint appearance, might have been any small community in America.

EINSTEIN, ALBERT. *Essays in Science*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1954. 126 pp. \$2.75. This is a collection of 15 papers and speeches by the distinguished scientist.

ERNEST, J. W., and DaVALL, G. M. *Salesmanship Fundamentals*. New York 18: Gregg Pub. Co. 1954. 450 pp. \$3.28. This is a new and extensive treatment for high schools—a "firing line" approach to the principles of salesmanship. It has been developed from on-the-job experience in selling as well as from actual classroom teaching—supported with cases, examples, and problems. The text starts with an overview of the selling field—types of selling, selling as a career, what the salesman does. This is followed by an analysis of the personal element of selling—developing a sales personality, sales ethics, influencing people. Then every phase of the sales presentation is covered, including the demonstration, the close, and how to develop new business. Finally, it deals with the responsibilities of the salesman to his employer, his fellow employees, to the buyer, and to himself. This latter part includes realistic chapters on managing your time and how to obtain the selling job. The text is equally effective in general salesmanship classes and in the distributive education area. Supplementary teaching aids include a *Workbook* containing problems and projects in addition to those found in the text and a *Teacher's Manual* with teaching

suggestions, objective tests, and a film bibliography, as well as solutions to the problems and projects found in the text and *Workbook*.

EVERETT, M. S. *Ideals of Life*. New York 16: John Wiley and Sons. 1954. 750 pp. This book is humanity-centered and built about the life-interests of older students and the ideals of a democratic culture. It draws upon a rich heritage of philosophical thought, not simply as an end in itself, but for what it can contribute to the development of an intelligent philosophy of life for today. Professor Everett's work is primarily an ethics, but so vital and functional is the organization of the subject matter that it can be used both as part of a program of general education and as preparation for further work in philosophy. The book includes a wealth of highly readable selections from classical and contemporary writers common to ethics and humanities.

FARALLA, DANA. *Black Renegade*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1954. 223 pp. \$3. This is the story of a boy and a renegade horse. No one could ride Black Lightning, the stallion with the hooves of thunder and the jagged white blaze on his forehead. Men looked on him as a killer, but John Rand, the young plantation owner, could not lightly part with so valuable a property. Black Lightning was put in a pasture away from men and horses. Kevin Fitzgerald, whose happy-go-lucky family lived nearby, could not stay away from the animal. With the blood of many generations of Irish breeders and trainers in his veins, he loved and knew horses, and no pain, punishment, or danger could persuade him that the beautiful creature could not be tamed by him, Kevin. Into the story of this conflict is woven the tender relationship between Kevin's older sister, Cleena, and John Rand, the redemption of the Fitzgerald property, the quarrel and reconciliation of two colorful Irishmen, and Kevin's friendship with Orin McDun-nagh, granddaughter of the head of the travelling horse dealers known as the Tinker Clan.

FARJEON, ELEANOR. *The Silver Carlew*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1954. 192 pp. \$2.75. Here is the old English folktale of the little black imp with the secret name, woven into a new story sparkling with fun, sad and gay by turns, and told in musical, sensitive prose that makes it perfect for reading aloud. The author has conjured up a wonderful world, full of people as real as daylight: Mother Codling, "half as big again as your own mother," and her four sons, good, strong lads who say little and think less; twelve-year-old Poll Codling, "brown as a nut, bright as a button, sharp as a needle, and inquisitive as a kitten," and her sister Doll, pretty and idle and sweet, who marries Nollekens of Norfolk, the king with a double nature.

FAULKNER, H. U. *A Visual History of the United States*. New York 21: Henry Schuman. 1953. 200 pp. (8½" x 11") \$5. How did democracy come to America? How did it develop such firm roots? How strong are the forces that menace it today? This new history attempts to answer these questions and more through visual and text presentation. The book contains a hundred pictographs, maps, graphic stories, and 75,000 words of narrative. Basic social, economic, and political relationships are shown. The book is divided into nine units: From Settlement to Independence, The Early Growth of Democracy, Division and Reunion, Politics in an Industrial Society, Development of the Industrial Revolution, Intellectual and Cultural Life, Development of United States Foreign Policy, Depression and the New Deal, and The United States A World Power. It also contains the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, research sources for graphics, an index, and a bibliography.

FINK, H. K. *Mind and Performance*. New York 1: Vantage Press. 1954. 127 pp. \$3. This study of animal behavior was prompted chiefly by the fact that psychological work on reptiles has been almost nonexistent. The author here compares the learning ability of a variety of animals to determine the speed with which one species learns in relation to others. Special emphasis is placed on comparing the learning performance of the turtle with that of higher vertebrates, including man.

FLOHERTY, J. J. *Men Against Distance*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1954. 158 pp. \$2.85. In this book the author explores the mysteries and magic of communications, from jungle tom-toms to television. Venturing behind the scenes in the great laboratories, he

has delved into the drama of radio and television transmission. From the archives, he has gleaned stories that today seem incredible. Sound pictures, for instance, lay for years on a shelf in Hollywood, until a daring producer gambled on a "talkie" and started a billion dollar industry. While writing about these milestones in communication, he tells about the men who made them possible. His profiles of Morse, Bell, Marconi, De Forest, Sarnoff, and other pioneers in the field are epics of self-sacrifice and tenacity. And hand in hand with the scientists, go the men and women who keep the huge system of communications operating. Flood, fire, and ice are conquered all in a day's work.

FRANKEN, ROSE. *Rendezvous*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1954. 251 pp. \$3.50. For more than two thousand years the village of Eze, perched high on the hills above the Mediterranean, has not been inviolate from invasion. Conflict is implicit when Josephine's brother Pierre marries and brings to Eze his German wife, for his parents are as solid in their traditions as the rocky soil they live on, and as impenetrable to change. Josephine alone is torn by passionate loyalties and ancient hates that she did not know existed in her simple, believing heart; and her personal conflict is woven into a moving love story. Within the climate of intense emotions, the author unfolds a drama which is gentle and humorous on the surface, but profoundly turbulent in its inner aspects.

FRIERMOOD, E. H. *Hoosier Heritage*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1954. 221 pp. \$2.75. Julia Edwards was a real Hoosier. The Wabash ran in her blood, and when Pa Edwards decided to migrate to Kansas, she felt she couldn't bear to leave her beloved Indiana. But Pa was a tyrant and the whole Edwards tribe, including Susan and Mary Ann, who were starting families of their own, packed up and hit the long road west. But Julia never completed the journey. She and Lem and Mary Ann finally rebelled and turned off in the mountains of Missouri, where Julia found new horizons in the rugged frontier life—and a perfect companion with whom to explore them in the challenging Dr. Sam Boots.

GAER, JOSEPH. *How the Great Religions Began*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1954. 240 pp. 25c, pocket edition. This is a book about the spiritual life of humanity and the founders of man's faith throughout the ages. A Signet Key book, pocket-size.

GEARY, C. N. *Driving Today and Tomorrow*. New York 36: Whittlesey House. 1954. 144 pp. \$2.50. This is a book for teenagers to read. It presents information on present-day automobiles and the way in which they run. With explanations and diagrams, the author shows how an engine responds to the driver, how an engine should be cared for, what it will do, and what it cannot do. Attention is given to causes of accidents, rules of the road, and effects of alcohol. It shows how to be safe and at the same time enjoy driving through knowledge and skill.

GILMAN, W. E.; ALY, BOWER; and REID, L. D. *The Fundamentals of Speaking*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1954. 618 pp. \$5.75. This is one of the few works that attempts to cultivate speechmaking as an art and as a discipline. It provides the reader with a complete, systematic treatment of the time-honored principles of speechmaking combined with a critical study of the findings of current research. Demonstrating the advantages of good speaking in every type of work, profession, or career in contemporary society, it deals with both formal and informal speaking and the standard preparation for both. This book is organized simply and clearly into eight self-contained units. The problems of the speechmaker are approached from the following points of view: (a) preparation of the speech and how to do it, including choosing a topic, gathering, analyzing and adapting the material, composing and presenting a speech; (b) the audience and how to understand a group; (c) the speaker and how to deal with his problems, including how to achieve the requisite voice level and intonation, pronunciation and articulation, how best to utilize bodily activity in speechmaking, and how to achieve poise and competence; (d) the occasion and how to know what is appropriate and effective;

(e) the purpose of the speech and how to solve the problems it presents through understanding the principles of entertaining, informing, impressing, and persuading; (f) the subject, including how speechmaking is indispensable in business and the professions and important in discharging the obligations of citizenship, and how it has increased in importance as a major area of knowledge and skill.

GUERARD, ALBERT. *Bottle in the Sea*. Cambridge 38, Mass.: Harvard Univ. Press. 1954. 173 pp. \$3.50. With Pascal, the author sees thought as "The whole dignity of man," who must be free to doubt, to search, to prove all things. The author is a disciple of Descartes and the Enlightenment, but abstract reason is not enough. Art escapes from the sterility of mere intellect; through imagination and passion, it enhances our consciousness of life. But man's soul seeks a substance beyond the pageantry of art. Both intellect and art point to the necessity of faith.

HALL, J. B. *Not by the Door*. New York 22: Random House. 1954. 256 pp. \$3. Though this novel is ostensibly the story of Reverend Marcham and his pretty, black-haired wife, it is as much the story of his whole Episcopal parish—businessmen, churchwomen, the underprivileged, and all the others who look to him for help and fulfillment without ever realizing the extent of his weakness.

HAMMOND, H. E. *A Commoner's Judge*. Boston 20: Christopher Pub. House. 1954. 456 pp. \$5. This is the story of the life and times of a great jurist, Judge Charles Patrick Daly who lived in New York City from 1816 to 1899. Born of Irish immigrant parents who arrived in America only two years before their only son was born, Charles Daly rose to eminence in the social, political, and intellectual circles of his day. A leader in many fields he earned a reputation as patron of the arts, philanthropist, Shakespearean scholar, and sage. Careful in his scholarship, his writings include the common law, juridical history, diplomatic discussions, and the history of drama. Columbia University conferred the degree of Doctor of Laws upon him in 1860 and engaged him to lecture—a man who had almost no formal education. Judge Daly's active service on the Bench is one of the longest in American jurisprudence. A justice of the Court of Common Pleas of the City of New York from his 28th to his 70th year, he was Chief Justice for the last 27 of his nearly 42 years on the Bench. Considered the highest court in New York during the 19th century, the Common Pleas existed by that name from 1821 to 1896, and Judge Daly served on it during the most significant period of its life, from 1844 to 1885. Close to the people in its jurisdiction, the Common Pleas had a powerful influence on the commercial and industrial activity of the city. Two of the most celebrated of Judge Daly's cases were the Astor Place Riots Case and the impeachment trial of Mayor A. Oakley Hall during the Tweed Ring scandals. Widely known as "the incorruptible judge," Daly fought Tweed and his cohorts-in-crime with a vigor that nearly cost him his judicial position.

HARRINGTON, J. T. *Look at the City*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1954. 64 pp. cloth, \$2; paper, \$1.25. This book is a portrait of the city, told in pictures and integrated text. It is primarily a story of people and the work churches are doing to meet the people's needs. Here, too, is the story of Morag Kennedy, a career girl who came to the city. We see her on her way to work, at her job, at lunchtime, in the evening, and on many other occasions. We see what the city holds for her and other people like her.

HASS, HANS. *Men and Sharks*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1954. 318 pp. \$3.95. The author is the Viennese zoologist and sportsman whose popular *Diving to Adventure* and *Manta: Under the Red Sea with Spear and Camera* have established him not only as an extremely daring fellow among sharks but an engaging raconteur as well. Now in this book he tells of new adventures in the coastal waters of Greece. The expedition was both a scientific field trip and a motion picture venture by which the author hoped to demonstrate on film his thesis that sharks are not really very dangerous to humans.

HEIGES, P. M., SCHNEIDER, A. E., and HUFFMAN, HARRY. *General Record Keeping*, third edition. New York 18: Gregg Pub. Co. 1954. 286 pp. \$2.68. This high-school text approaches record keeping from the clerical rather than from the accounting standpoint. Using an interesting style and non-technical language, this book takes the student through a step-by-step program leading to vocational skill in the handling of the basic records used in business. Too, it offers the bonus attraction of providing the foundation for an intelligent use of personal records. Included also are problem material and activities to hold the students' interest throughout the course. More than 150 work units are presented along with the text. The end-of-chapter materials include Questions for Class Discussion, Words and Phrases You Should Know, and Arithmetic Exercises. Supplementary teaching aids include a Workbook and a Teacher's Manual and Key.

HERBST, JOSEPHINE. *New Green World*. New York 22: Hastings House. 1954. 284 pp. \$4. The author has taken for the setting of her book, the unexplored wilderness of America of the 18th century. Her story centers around John Bartram and his group of early botanists whose philosophy and attitude toward nature ran counter to the trend of the times. While the vast majority were out to exploit a continent for profit, despoil it, lay waste its forests, exterminate its animal life, trample its plants and flowers out of existence, these men wanted to investigate, to cherish, and to preserve. They saw America as a laboratory of wonder and a treasure house of botanical discoveries. If Bartram uprooted a plant, it was to transfer it to his garden, nurture it carefully, and then send its seeds to England for propagation on the estates of British noblemen or other wealthy amateur collectors. He combed the wilderness in search of specimens, traveling throughout the region east of the Ohio, from the Great Lakes all the way down to the steaming swamps of the St. John's River in Florida. And wherever he went he found sympathetic fellow hobbyists who sent him rare specimens after he had returned to his Pennsylvania farm. Meanwhile he developed a lively correspondence with a network of botanists, headed by the great Linnaeus, that spread over Europe, and particularly with his London friend, Collinson, who acted as go-between in the lively international exchange of plants and information. Indeed the thinking and writing of this group of early naturalists, to which John and his son William Bartram belonged, had a distinct influence on the English romantic poets.

HERRING, MAISIE. *The Young Traveler in Ireland*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1954. 224 pp. \$3. This book is about three young people who spend a year at school (and on holiday) in Ireland. Valerie, Geoff, and Chris, teenagers all, land on Great Blasket Island off the west coast of Ireland, meet the "King" of the Island, have tea at his cottage, and hear some of the tales of the sea-washed islands and their diminishing people. Next on to Belfast, the city among the mountains and the story of the Treaty of 1921 and the birth of the Republic of Eire. There is a motor trip along the Irish coast, then on to Glenariff, Thackeray's "Switzerland in miniature"; an Irish farm with a supper of potatoes, eggs, and soda bread. Then the journey shifts to Armagh, through Camlough and so at last to Dublin. Meanwhile there have been a wonderful Irish Hallowe'en, a rousing fox hunt; and with an Irish Christmas the book closes. Truly, here is Ireland, the beautiful, the ancient, the picturesque!

HICKS, GRANVILLE. *Where We Came Out*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1954. 256 pp. \$3.50. An American liberal, an ex-member of the Communist Party, tells the story of communism and the strange appeal it once had for men of good will like himself.

HOLLMANN, C. A., and PLUMMER, MYRTES-MARIE. *Jim Bridger, King of Scouts*. New York 1: Vantage Press. 1954. 165 pp. \$3. Jim Bridger ranks, along with Davy Crockett, Daniel Boone, and Kit Carson, as one of America's most spectacular frontiersmen. In fact, during the middle fifty years of the last century, no man was Bridger's peer in knowledge of

that vast expanse westward from St. Louis to the Great Salt Lake and the northern parts of the Great Plains and the Rockies.

Celebrated as a hunter, fur trader, and trapper, Jim Bridger was also an explorer and an indispensable guide for Federal government surveying expeditions, Army detachments, and the wagon trains of emigrants, pushing into the unknown West. He discovered the Great Salt Lake in 1824, and found South Pass in 1827, thereby opening a less hazardous route through the Rockies for the enormous migration into the Oregon Territory that was soon to take place. He was among the first white men to gaze in amazement upon the natural wonders now contained in Yellowstone Park, and later he mapped out the famous Overland Trail through Bridger's Pass (named after him) to the Great Salt Lake.

After Jim Bridger's death, Major General Granville M. Dodge, for whose expedition he had once acted as scout, erected a monument in Kansas City, Missouri, as a tribute to his pioneer work in Indian campaigns and in laying out the route along which the Union Pacific Railroad laid its tracks.

Jim Bridger could not read or write. He had no use for such facetious aids to knowledge. Nature disclosed to him all he needed to know. He believed Indians should receive the same consideration as whites, and he killed buffalo and antelope only for food, and grizzlies only in self-defense. Fair play and sportsmanship were his abiding virtues, and he had an unfaltering belief in the destiny of the West as a great country. Out of the life of this simple man, whose wants were so few and whose humility was so great, the authors have contrived a stirring story.

HOLT, FELIX. *Dan'l Boone Kissed Me*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1954. 248 pp. \$3. This book is about the Jackson Purchase country of Kentucky in the 1840's. Pappy Duke had come out to this country, built himself one of the best houses and best tobacco farms in that section. He wanted no part of Army Feaster who was content to live with his beautiful daughter Leah in a one-room cabin. His sons, Terrill, the older, and Zeff, the younger (who tells the story), were to grow up in the Caldwell tradition of eating high on the hog, of guarding their womenfolk, and if possible, marrying them above themselves. And he wanted no part of his favorite son Terrill's getting mixed up with that riff-raff of Army Feaster and Leah, no matter how beautiful she might be. The story opens with Mr. Wheelock, the buyer, coming down to buy Pappy Duke's crop. Granny, rocking in the dogtrot, thinks Wheelock is Daniel Boone because her mind's awandering lately and when she was a girl, "Dan'l Boone Kissed Me." Wheelock tells Pappy Duke that he wants him to run for the legislature and show those Bluegrass aristocrats that they are not all riff-raff covered with bear grease from their backwoods country. There is humor and great tenderness in this story of Leah and Terrill and Pappy Duke and his lusty family. There is action and violence, for this is the way of the frontier, as the story rises swiftly to Fourth Monday—the day of the voting when Pappy hopes to be nominated, and the day on which Leah and Terrill hope to be married.

HOMER. *The Iliad*. (Translated by W. H. D. Rouse) New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1954. 312 pp. 50c pocket edition. This is a translation of the famous story of Achilles—claimed by many as the world's greatest war novel. The translator retells the story in fast, modern, colloquial prose. A Mentor pocket-size book.

HORAN, J. D. *Confederate Agent*. New York 16: Crown Publishers. 1954. 352 pp. \$5. This is the astounding story—never before told—of the great Confederate Conspiracy that came close to destroying the Union from within, and of its mastermind, Captain Thomas H. Hines, C.S.A.

It was 1864, in the Confederacy's eleventh hour, that Jefferson Davis commissioned Hines as the military leader of a secret and desperate mission. That was the beginning of an amazing chapter of American history, the details of which are here disclosed for the first time.

Before Hines was finished, Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio were ready to join the Confederacy.

A secret army of 100,000 was ready to strike. Chicago was on the brink of rebellion. Fifteen New York City hotels were in flames. Great numbers of troops had to be diverted from Grant's command. And there were scores of almost incredible feats of personal valor, such as the rescue of General John Hunt Morgan from the Ohio penitentiary, the almost successful kidnapping of Vice President-elect Johnson, the burning of Federal transports at St. Louis, etc.

Confederate Agent is a significant discovery in history, making clear and fitting in the missing pieces of one of the greatest adventures of the Civil War. It is based on unassailable documents which the author was the first to examine and study: the U. S. War Department's Civil War conspiracy files contained in the Baker-Turner papers which had been sealed for 90 years; Captain Hine's own secret reports and diaries which had never been published; and many other records, papers, and documents made available to the author by descendants of the chief conspirators.

HORTH, L. B. and A. C. *101 Things for a Boy To Make*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1954. 192 pp. This book, revised by P. Yabsley, is a selection of things that a beginner, who possesses just a few tools with only limited opportunities for using them, can do. There are suggestions for the young woodworker and the metalworker, for the budding engineer and the model maker, for the outside worker in making garden appliances or concrete objects, for the handyman in dealing with everyday repairs, etc. Illustrated with drawings and pictures. Indexed.

HORTH, L. B. and A. C. *101 Things for Girls To Do*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1954. 192 pp. This book, revised by M. Metcalfe, provides girls of various ages with something to do during leisure hours. It will encourage them to find enjoyment in the use of their hands. The needle, the pencil, the pen, and the brush are the tools used for the projects. Many of the projects illustrated and described are the simple beginnings of useful crafts. Indexed.

HOWARD, ELIZABETH. *A Star To Follow*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1954. 222 pp. \$2.75. Arizona was a remote and primitive place in 1875—especially when compared to Detroit. Ellen and Nettie Stacey found this out when they made the difficult trip to the Southwest to join their parents at the army post commanded by their father. Nettie, who was gay and pretty, with the interests suitable for a young girl, adjusted quickly to army life. There were too many attractive lieutenants around for life to become boring. Ellen, however, found nothing in the tea parties and the army gossip to replace her dream of going to college and becoming a doctor. The only man who really interested her was Neil Brent, but he was an enlisted man and therefore an officer's daughter could not associate with him. In desperation Ellen strove to overcome the prejudice which her parents and the post doctor felt toward the idea of a girl's studying medicine, and she finally won permission to read the doctor's medical books as a first step toward realizing her ambition. No one except Neil Brent believed that Ellen could actually stick to a vocation so difficult and in many ways so repellent.

HUFF, DARRELL. *How To Lie with Statistics*. New York 3: W. W. Norton and Co. 1954. 142 pp. \$2.95. Businessmen need to understand statistics to run their business. Housewives need to understand statistics to shop wisely. Everybody is bombarded with statistics by advertisers, commentators, politicians, lobbyists, pollsters, and assorted medicine men. You rarely live through a day without having statistics forced on you by radio, television, billboard, or newspaper. This book will help you keep from being fooled.

HUGHES, LANGSTON. *The First Book of Rhythms*. New York 21: Franklin Watts. 1954. 64 pp. \$1.75. A poet opens new vistas in this account of how simple rhythms begin and how vast are their relationships. Starting with lines that any child can draw, he guides the reader through the rhythms of daily living; of nature's growing plants and animals; and of the moon, tides, night, day, and the seasons to the unseen rhythms of air and electronics and the rhythms of the universe.

INKS, J. M. *Eight Bailed Out*. New York 3: W. W. Norton and Co. 1954. 222 pp. \$3. This true story of the crew of a Liberator bomber forced down over Yugoslavia has few parallels in the annals of adventure. For ten and a half months these American airmen were evaders behind the enemy lines. Trying to escape the Germans, they were held in a sort of protective custody by Chetniks, who were allied with the Germans and at the same time fighting them. Posing as Chetniks, Inks and his companions ate, slept, and lived with German troops, sharing with them the rigors of a bitter winter retreat, suffering with them the terrible battering of Allied air attacks by day and Partisan ambushes by night, and stealing food from them every chance they got.

JOHN, EVAN. *The Darkness*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1954. 256 pp. \$3.50. How did the supreme drama of all time, that of the Crucifixion and its aftermath, affect those concerned in it? What disturbed Pontius Pilate, the Roman Procurator, and the notables of the Jewish Sanhedrin, when they heard of the events at the tomb of the wealthy merchant Joseph of Arimathea early on the first Easter morning? Why did the punishment of an obscure agitator so upset the wily Herod, Tetrach of Galilee, and his rapacious consort, Herodias? And what were the rumors in the streets of Jerusalem, and what were the first believers saying in their hiding places? The author tells the miraculous story in a new way—through the intelligence reports of the Roman and Jewish agents, through transcripts of cross-examinations before the Sanhedrin's committee, through private letters of officials, civilians, and merchants, and through the moving correspondence of Nicodemus the Teacher with Joseph of Arimathea himself. There is everything here—faith, love, the power of tyranny overthrown by humility, the tragedy of those who could not understand—and above all there is a splendid feeling for the atmosphere of the confused, misgoverned world in which Christ lived and died.

JOHNSTONE, M. B. *When God Says "No."* New York 20: Simon and Schuster. 1954. 319 pp. \$3.50. This is the autobiography of a Congregational minister. That minister happens to be an unusual one, because she's a woman, a wife, and a mother. As a minister's story it's unusual also in that she does not claim to know all the answers. She has been groping for them herself through the years, and some of them have come clear. In the years that lie ahead she will keep learning and renewing her faith, not through platitudes and blind utterings, but through human experience. As the title suggests, faith often comes as the result of disappointment. Her story is a vital and warm one. It's the story of a young girl who, for very human reasons, finds that the ministry is what she wants. It's a love story and a family story, set against a typically American background of growth, laughter, tragedy, and fulfillment.

JONES, OLGA. *Churches of the Presidents in Washington*. New York 16: Exposition Press. 1954. 109 pp. \$3. In opening the doors of these sanctuaries to the past and to the present, the author offers a wealth of factual, quaint, and inspirational background material that lends the book a special charm. The author makes such facts, and hosts of others speak out from the precious annals, the age-worn documents, and the treasured memories within the Washington churches of our Presidents. Each of the fifteen churches is the subject of a full-page half-tone reproduction in this book.

JORDAN, GRACE. *Home Below Hell's Canyon*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1954. 213 pp. \$3.50. This is the true story of a modern pioneer family who settled deep in the gorge of Idaho's Snake River. It was in 1932, at the height of the depression, that the Jordans decided to make their home in this wild and nearly inaccessible section of Idaho. Friends and family were horrified when they announced the move, for the Jordans were taking their children with them—Steve, aged seven months; Joe, three and a half; and Patsy, six. Their new home, Kirkwood Bar Ranch, lay on the treacherous Snake just below Hell's Canyon, the deepest scar on North America's face. Here, miles from neighbors and hemmed in by towering canyon walls, Grace and Len Jordan hoped to "make a stake" raising sheep.

KANY, C. E., and MELZ, C. F. *Spoken German for Travelers and Tourists*. Boston 6: Little, Brown, and Co. 1954. 245 pp. \$2.50. The purpose of this book is to offer easy but adequate conversational German to travelers and tourists of Germany and Austria. It may be used not only by beginners with no knowledge of German, but also by those who possess a foundation. A skeleton grammar is appended. The appendix contains the principal parts of strong and irregular verbs as well as the principal parts of nouns occurring in the dialogues used in the book. The book is organized on a conversation basis. For each German sentence, an English translation is given.

KEYES, F. P. *The Royal Box*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1954. 381 pp. \$3.50. Lady Laura Whitford, the high-born but impoverished widow of a nobleman, made no secret of her deep-rooted dislike for Americans, though she never gave her reasons for it. She openly favored the suit of Jacques de Valcourt, a brilliant and attractive French cavalry officer, for her lovely but browbeaten daughter, Althea. Just as openly, Althea opposed Lady Whitford for the suit of Hilary Thorpe, the far less dashing Vermonter who was the Counsellor of the American Embassy, and who was greatly beloved by Althea herself. Therefore, Hilary was doubly grateful—and doubly astonished—because Lady Laura came to his rescue when he suddenly found himself faced by an unexpected diplomatic dilemma.

KJELGAARD, JIM. *Haunt Fox*. New York 11: Holiday House, 8 W. 13th St. 1954. 220 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of a red fox, of a boy and a dog who hunted him, and of the wilderness where it happened. Because of the odd-shaped white patch on his chest that gave him his name, and the freak six toes on his front feet, Star was a marked fox from his youngest days. And because of his growing wisdom and cunning in escaping traps and dogs, he also became known as a "haunt" fox—an elusive prize eagerly sought by every hunter in the valley. Evading pursuit was a game Star enjoyed as much as did the hounds that trailed him.

KRUMGOLD, JOSEPH. . . . *And Now Miguel*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1954. 253 pp. \$2.75. This is Miguel—Miguel Chavez who held in his heart a secret wish and yearned to go with the men of his family to the Sangre de Cristo Mountains. He lives near Taos, New Mexico, where the members of the Chavez family have lived on a sheep-raising farm for many generations. They have guarded their sheep from the weather, sickness, and wild animals. Each week presents a new kind of danger to the flock, and it is the job of the men of the family to protect it.

LaFARGE, JOHN. *The Manner Is Ordinary*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1954. 416 pp. \$4.75. Young John LaFarge, the son of a famous American artist, had a family tree deeply rooted in this country's past and traceable to such figures as Benjamin Franklin and Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry. While at Harvard (urged there by a family friend, Theodore Roosevelt), he decided to become a priest. This is his autobiography. It reveals, among other incidents in a long and eventful life, how he later decided also to become a Jesuit. There was nothing obvious in John LaFarge's background to indicate that he would devote his life to the causes of interracial and social justice. Yet this he did, as missionary, as journalist, as editor, and as priest.

La FARGE, OLIVER. *The Mother Ditch*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1954. 56 pp. \$2.25. This is the story of a dry land and of the people who live in it, of their farms, and of their struggles to keep their crops green. It is the story of early irrigation in New Mexico as adapted from methods used by Indians who had lived there for hundreds of years before.

LAGO, M. M. *They Live in the City*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1954. 128 pp. \$2. Kathy McKenzie doesn't know a soul when she and her family move to Westmount. She feels lonely, the junior high school seems miles away, and she wonders how she'll ever stick it out. She feels even worse when she goes to the drugstore and overhears several kids her own age talking about her. She wishes then she had never come to Westmount! But that night

at the junior high-school party at the Community Church, she runs into the same drugstore bunch and discovers that most of them, like her, are from out of town. Before she knows it, she's one of the crowd. "It's having friends that makes all the difference," reasons Kathy.

LAIR, JOHN. *Songs Lincoln Loved*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Co. 1954. 96 pp. (8½" x 11") \$3.75. Lincoln loved many different kinds of music. From his childhood in Kentucky and Illinois through the fateful years in the White House, music always had a profound effect on his mind and heart. During his life minstrel songs provided him with relaxation, hymns lent him strength and inspiration, and the popular ballads of the day gave him release from the burdens of his office. This book contains 47 songs, ballads, and hymns he loved best. These are complete with words and music. This is a combination song book with commentary.

LAIR, TED. *The Art of Full Living*. New York 1: Vantage Press. 1954. 91 pp. \$2.50. Human beings are constantly searching for something—a better job, new friends, the right marital partner, financial and emotional security—in short, for the Good Life. But how to achieve it, in this age of anxiety, is something else again. Written for the layman, this is a book that not only indicates the symptoms, but points the way toward a richer, fuller, and more satisfying life.

LAMB, HAROLD. *Charlemagne*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1954. 320 pp. \$4.50. His name was Charles. Those who hated him as a youth mouthed out his name as the Churl. Generations after he died, people remembered him as a great man, Charles the Great, and they called him Charlemagne. We first see Charles as a youth—a gangling lad, strong as the young Lincoln was strong. He was possessed of few kingly qualities other than his physical strength and obdurate will, yet he grew into the man who eventually brought the entire Western World under absolute control and saw his rule sanctified by the highest ecclesiastical authority on earth.

LAMBERT, JANET. *Cinda*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1954. 190 pp. \$2.75. Cinda Hollister, fourteen, in an effort to bring her third cousin, Paula Marsh, out of an ugly frame of mind, persuades Paula's aunt to take a cottage near the Hollisters' on Long Beach Island. Paula's trouble is caused by her determined notion that her pretty mother, in marrying again, no longer loves her and that her step-father, Frederick Aldrich, hates her and does not want her as a part of his new household. Cinda tries persuasion without success.

LANDIS, P. H. *Your Marriage and Family Living*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1954. 402 pp. \$3.20. When the first edition of this book was published, family-life education in the high schools of the nation was in its infancy. Since that time thousands of high schools have incorporated a course or at least unit on family life into the curriculum. Today in most schools it is considered a necessity in the pupil's program. There are many reasons for this, but a few will suffice: people are marrying at an earlier age, young people are exposed to more mass media, changed patterns of living, and young people are inquisitive. As a result schools are more and more expected to train teenagers for dating, mate selection, marriage, homemaking, and parenthood.

This book for high-school use is divided into six sections: What Marriage and Family Mean Today, Dating Days, Making Choices, Making Marriage Work, Planning for Parenthood, and Family Problems. In addition there are a glossary of terms, a teacher's reference list, a visual aids list, an index, and a summarization on "The Future Ahead for the Family."

LATHAM, J. L. *The Story of Eli Whitney*. New York 3: Aladdin Books. 1953. 192 pp. \$1.75. From the faith of a Yankee peddler at the beginning of the Revolution, from the sympathy of Thomas Jefferson, from the confidence of spirited, lively Catherine Greene, Eli Whitney drew the strength to travel the long road of achievement. But this story makes it vividly clear that the spark of genius within the man himself was needed to create the tools that changed the face of America.

LAWRENCE, R. J. *Tales of a Wanderlust*. New York 1: William-Frederick Press. 1954. 122 pp. \$3. The author was a merchant seaman during World War II. He had grown into manhood through a tortuous youth, and this was the test—an able seaman doing his part to win the war. Through his eyes we see the world not as the sheltered tourist, but as a real seaman in wartime does. There's grim London at bay, the mythical Casbah, ancient Damascus tight out of the Bible, the prostitutes in every scurvy port, the gripes and the greatness of the men and, of course, the fierce, murderous meetings with the enemy at sea. Through it all, he never becomes embittered. He keeps his love of life in all its moods; he finds solace in study and in good books; he never loses his sense of humor or his wonder at the underlying beauty and mystery of life. "Some men learn these things from books. Others, like myself, learn them from blows." And in this sincere book the author gives us a frank and personal account of these blows that taught him what life is all about.

LEGGETT, GLENN; MEAD, C. D.; and CHARVAT, WILLIAM. *Prentice-Hall's Handbook for Writers*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1954. 566 pp. \$2.95. This handbook is designed to serve both as a guide and as a reference work. As a summary of grammatical usage and elementary rhetoric, it provides a source of information on the essentials of clear writing. The book is organized into eight major parts: Introduction, Grammar, Manuscript Mechanics, Larger Elements, Effective Sentences, Words, Punctuation, and Special Aids. The *Introduction* sketches the growth of good English; *Grammar* outlines basic material; *Manuscript Mechanics* describes the conventions of manuscript form; *Larger Elements* discusses the planning and organization of the complete paper and the structure of paragraphs; *Effective Sentences* describes the problems of sentence structure from the elementary of "subordination" to the more subtle one of "variety"; information on dictionaries and ways of improving vocabulary, a special test to measure vocabulary range, the three principles of word choice (exactness, directness, and appropriateness), and a glossary of troublesome words are included under the division *Words*; *Punctuation* in relation to main clauses, subordinate elements, parenthetical elements is given attention, as well as the use of italics; and *Special Aids* includes discussion of the following topics: the library paper, business and social correspondence, grammatical terms, and writing summaries. Also contained are supplementary exercises and a general index. Throughout the book emphasis is placed on the practical problem of what is needed to know and consider when writing. It classifies the standards and conventions of writing and provides reference to them in three ways: through an index, a table of contents, and a chart on the endpapers of the book. Each major rule is given a number, and each subrule is designated by the number of the major rule and an alphabetical letter. Teachers may use these numbers in correcting the pupils' themes.

LEWITON, MINA. *Rachel*. New York 21: Franklin Watts. 1954. 185 pp. \$2.50. From the moment Papa told the family they might be moving to the tree-lined streets Uptown, eleven-and-a-half-year-old Rachel began to feel uneasy. She loved the familiar crowded tenements of lower East Side New York. She loved the candy store and the pineapple man and the school. And the Library! How could she bear to leave the Library? A stranger had offered Papa space in a store Uptown where he could display the books he was selling from his pushcart. It was a wonderful opportunity. But then Papa's sister, Aunt Frayda, came with her five children to visit. The hilarious—and disastrous—results of that visit drove all thoughts of moving from Mama's and Papa's minds, and in the events that followed the problem was worked out to a delightfully satisfying conclusion.

LEY, WILLY. *Engineers' Dreams*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1954. 239 pp. \$3.50. In this book the author tells of a number of the more fascinating of these unfinished projects. He describes the idea of building a tunnel beneath the English Channel, a dry-land link between England and continental Europe; the vision of a floating platform, or "island," in the middle of the ocean, where a plane could land and replenish its fuel tanks or outwait a period of bad weather; the dream (which has already been accomplished in some areas) of putting volcanoes

and hot springs to work, using their steam and hot water to drive engines and heat cities; the project of blocking the Congo River and creating an enormous fresh-water lake in the Congo Basin, a lake which would be convenient as a means of transportation. He also includes plans for how to improve the Holy Land, shrink the Mediterranean Sea—thus providing much new land in the Mediterranean Basin—and harness power from the sun, winds, waves, and tides.

LIPSON, LESLIE. *The Great Issues of Politics*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1954. 447 pp. This book critically examines the fundamentals of the political process as they relate to every political system in any kind of state and in all forms of government. The book encourages critical and intelligent examination of the problems and issues as they exist in politics today. The author bases his book on the tenet that a thoughtful understanding of the nature of politics and political issues is the first foundation of freedom. Early in the book the author views the state in the context of society and then in relation to the family, church, school, business, or trade union. Throughout the book timely and basic questions are posed and reviewed. In chapter 4, for example, the author examines the doctrine that power and politics are synonymous. Next, in ten full chapters, the author studies five great political issues—the choice between a regime of privilege and one of equality; the functions of government, limited or unlimited; the source of authority, derived from the people or from their rulers; the concentration or dispersion of powers; and international relations.

LYKES, N. R. *A Psychological Approach to Accidents*. New York 1: Vantage Press. 1954. 146 pp. \$2.95. The author has examined hundreds of records and statistical tables of highway accidents; he has interviewed dozens of officials concerned with safety programs; and he has uncovered some startling facts. Leading authorities on accident prevention, he found, have concluded that between eighty and ninety per cent of all automobile accidents are motivated by psychological factors; in other words, the drivers involved are accident-prone or exhibit accident-prone tendencies, a condition deeply rooted in the unconscious, which may have nothing to do with driving skill. He further discovered that a majority of all accidents are caused by a minority of drivers (approximately twenty per cent have most of the accidents).

The author recommends, therefore, a completely new approach to automobile accidents, taking full account of the psychological aspects. He suggests, first, a recordkeeping system which would make it easy to spot the accident-prone driver, and then a driving clinic in which his degree of accident proneness could be determined by a competent psychologist or psychiatrist. The driver, under certain conditions, would have to submit to a retraining program, or, if found incurable except by psychotherapy, be barred from driving until he could prove himself a safe risk. In addition, the author recommends a scale of penalties which would penalize accident repeaters where it hurts most; not in the pocketbook, by a fine, but by suspending their drivers' licenses more frequently and for longer periods than at present. If his maximum program for accident prevention were adopted in all states, he predicts that the accident rate could be reduced as much as eighty-five or ninety per cent in ten years.

Appended to his examination of the automobile accident problem, the author has added several chapters on accidents in the home and in industry, the extent to which they are caused by accident proneness, and a number of carefully-thought-out procedures and safeguards by which they may be minimized or prevented.

MacLEAN, J. C. *Africa: The Racial Issue*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1954. 198 pp. \$1.75. This once dark continent has become an area of volcanic political, economic, and social forces. Some 150 million natives, speaking dozens of languages and belonging to hundreds of tribes are fighting for racial equality, for independence, for nationalism. To show why these once docile natives have begun to revolt so furiously against the *status quo* of their white rulers, the compiler has selected articles by experts who in her opinion have reported most completely and intelligently on British East Africa, the Union of South Africa, and the Belgian Congo and French Africa. In general, the book charts its course by three points:

(1) Schweitzer's patient reminder to his African charges that the whites have brought them education, greater prosperity, and an end of intertribal wars; (2) the African's bitter comment "When the Europeans came we had the land; they had the Bible. Now we have the Bible and they have the land," and (3) the peacemaker's: "You can play a tune of sorts on the white keys and you can play a tune of sorts on the black keys, but for harmony you must use both black and white."

MARTIN, J. B. *Break Down the Walls*. New York 18: Ballantine Books. 1954. 318 pp. Hardbound, \$3.50; paperbound, 35c, pocket edition. This is a history of American prisons as well as a survey showing conditions that lead to riots. Part One is about the riot in the state prison of southern Michigan at Jackson; Part Two presents history and conditions of our prison system; Part Three considers what is wrong with prisons and what is wrong with the people who inhabit them as well as what might be done.

MAYORGA, MARGARET, editor. *The Best Short Plays of 1953-54*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1954. 348 pp. \$3. "American theater enterprises," writes the editor in her preface to this volume, "have shown, in the 1953-1954 season, a burgeoning of activity not unlike that of the grasses that bloom in the spring. Everywhere there are great forces at work. . . ." This new volume includes ten outstanding short plays, with complete text and introductions. It also contains a list of selected plays of the year available for production in America, with brief summaries of the plots, and a bibliography of short plays also available for production.

McCLINTOCK, THEODORE. *Tank Menagerie*. New York 16: Abelard-Schuman, 381 Fourth Ave. 1954. 180 pp. \$2.50. Based on the author's personal experience with a tank of underwater animals kept in his own living room, and written from notes he made during the four months of spring and summer when he was observing these animals, this is an adventure story—about animals very much neglected in scientific literature for young people. The story is told in fictional form—a device which creates suspense and excitement—but all of the material is scientifically accurate.

MEIER, MARIANN. *The Young Traveler in Switzerland*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1954. 223 pp. \$3. When John Parker, young American, came to Switzerland to visit the Preiswerk family, he had no idea how deeply attached to the country of great mountains he would become. From Basle with its cherry orchards, libraries, and fine printing plants, to Zurich and Interlaken and the glorious Jungfrau, John traveled with young friends of the Preiswerks. He celebrated a Swiss Christmas and a gay New Year; came to love Swiss food and at one time, when he slipped into icy water, learned much about fine Swiss hospitals. Toward spring John traveled down to the southeast corner of Switzerland, where, still shaking the snow from his boots, he found palms, cacti, and wistaria. Here, too, he met new friends, the Bertonis, who did much to make his last weeks in Switzerland pleasant. Finally in Geneva his father's friend, Dr. Constantine, showed him the League of Nations Building and the great Geneva College for watchmaking. Then John was put on the train for London to meet his parents.

MILEY, CHARIS. *The Hog and I*. New York 1: William-Frederick Press. 1954. 93 pp. \$1. The author presents a system for controlling body weight by dieting.

MILLER, K. D. *Man and God in the City*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1954. 192 pp. \$2. People in this country have always been on the move, pushing on to other places. In the past ten years the population move from country to city, and from city to suburb has been unparalleled in our history. Why do people go to the city? What do they find when they get there? And what are the churches doing to reach them? Are too many churches concerned with "getting ahead," of measuring themselves by the size of their membership and the amount of their budget, rather than by their impact on individuals and the community? Have the churches kept pace with the shifting population? These are some of the questions the author raises and answers in this book.

MILLER, LLEWELLYN, editor. *Prize Articles, 1954*. New York 18: Ballantine Books. 1954. 192 pp. 35c, paperbound; \$2.75, hardbound. A collection of seven articles that have won the Benjamin Franklin Magazine Awards to American Magazines of general circulation for the most distinguished and meritorious public service.

MOORE, BARRINGTON, JR. *Terror and Progress USSR*. Cambridge 38, Mass.: Harvard Univ. Press. 1954. 285 pp. \$4.50. With an eye to the future, the author evaluates in this book both the sources of stability and the potentialities for change in the Bolshevik regime. Precise prediction is, of course, impossible; instead, the author indicates the range of possible lines of development, and describes the conditions under which each might arise and which each would in turn produce. The Soviet leaders who manipulate the control levers of their highly bureaucratized society must face recurring and significant problems. In industry severe counterpressures are generated as the machinery of leadership grinds against the demands and desires of the industrial personnel. The peasants' reaction to the control machinery also creates problems which affect the stability of the total system.

NATHAN, LEONARD. *A Wind Like a Bugle*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1954. 282 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of the escape of a slave, in 1859, through the "underground railway" which ran from Fort Scott, Kansas, to Canada. The author's research on the novel was done primarily in Topeka and Fort Scott, Lincoln and Omaha, Des Moines, and Chicago. The house of one of the chief characters, Susan Hood Orr, is under the jurisdiction of the Fort Scott Historical Association. Historically based on the struggle immediately preceding the Civil War when the newly created Territory of Kansas was caught in a pro-slave, Free Soil conflict, with anti-slavery activity a criminal offense locally, this book portrays the strong-willed men and women who risked their lives to give force and meaning to the ideal of human liberty.

NICHOLS, H. L., JR. *How To Operate Excavation Equipment*. Greenwich, Conn.: North Castle Books, 212 Bedford Rd. 1954. 150 pp. \$2.50; deluxe edition, \$3. Any junior or senior high-school student or adult interested in power machinery will be interested in this book. By means of illustrations and text, it gives step-by-step instruction in the operation of every major earth-moving tool, and explains many of the operations that are so fascinating to watch. Major sections are devoted to revolving shovels, conveyor machinery, tractors and dozers, tractor loaders, dump trucks, scrapers, graders, rollers, drills, pumps, and logging winches. The book should prove valuable for industrial arts students, and will interest all mechanically inclined boys and adults.

NOBLE, HOLLISTER. *Woman With a Sword*. Condensed and simplified by R. A. Knight. New York 22: Hanover House. 1954. 192 pp. \$1.50. This is the story of young and lovely Anne Ella Carroll of Maryland, whose complete devotion to her country made her an "unofficial member of Lincoln's Cabinet." Putting aside personal feelings, she plunged into a series of investigations for the Union cause, at Lincoln's request. She fell deeply in love with Lem Evans, a Union agent, who worked very closely with her, but they postponed their marriage time after time. Because Anne was a woman and a civilian, her work for Lincoln and the State Department was kept secret. Even that brilliant piece of strategy, the Tennessee plan, which eventually split the South in two, was never publicly credited to her, its author. With the end of the war, the realization of all Anne's dreams seemed at hand. But the tragic assassination of Lincoln changed everything.

NOVAK, JOE. *How To Put Power and Direction in Your Golf*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1954. 187 pp. \$5.95. Besides special 3-D pictures, this book features more than 200 photographs on golf technique, many of them in sequence. In addition to an introduction and a 5-page index, the book contains nine chapters: "Grip, Stance, and Balance," "The Full Swing with the Driver," "Iron Shots," "Putting," "The Mental Side of Golf," "The Hands in Golf," "The Slice and Hook Shots," "Some Typical Case Histories," and "The Eight Steps." The author of the book is an instructor at the Bel Air Country Club in Los Angeles, California.

O'FLAHERTY, DANIEL. *General Jo Shelby*. Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press. 1954. 453 pp. \$6. "Shelby was the best cavalry general of the South. Under other conditions he would have been one of the best in the world." This was the opinion of Alfred Pleasanton, the Union cavalry general who fought the best cavalymen the Confederacy had in Virginia before he was sent to Missouri in 1864 to fight Shelby. The almost forgotten hero of an almost completely neglected area of the Civil War, General Shelby emerges in this biography as not only the best but easily the most glamorous Confederate cavalry leader of them all.

A young Kentucky aristocrat, fascinated by the promise of the growing West, he soon became one of the richest men in Missouri. When a Free Soil Kansas threatened the state, he chose to fight with Missouri border ruffians in "Bleeding Kansas" in defense of southern institutions. Under the Confederacy he organized his Iron Brigade of cavalry—mainly of young men, including Frank and Jesse James—taught them a slashing frontier style of fighting, led them on incredible raids against Federal forces in Missouri, and commanded them in pitched battles with forces many times their size. His men idolized him.

Jo Shelby was the only Confederate general who never surrendered. He was ordered to do so, but instead he blew across the Texas line like a tornado, at the head of a thousand desperate men—the remnant of his division—and crossed the Rio Grande into Mexico to seek service with either Juarez or Maximilian. His last act as a Confederate officer was to sink into the Rio Grande his flag and the black plume he had worn in battle. From the Great River he marched to Mexico City, fighting bloody battles with Indians and guerillas as he went.

When the Mexican adventure finally ended, he returned to his adopted state of Missouri, where he lived out another turbulent thirty years. Railroads, steamboats, coal mining—and always the land—continued to fascinate him. His hospitality, particularly to former members of his Iron Brigade, became proverbial, and his loyalty to them and theirs to him was indestructible. He testified at the trial of Frank James, and, as U. S. Marshal for Western Missouri, the old Shelby appeared during the disorders caused by the Pullman strike. He became at last a folk god in Missouri, a living legend of the Civil War in the West. An unconquered rebel, he lived to be a powerful force in healing the wounds of war. His epitaph might well have been the words he used when he refused to seize for his troops the last of the Confederate gold in the sub-treasury at Austin in May, 1865: "We are the last of our race. Let us be the best as well."

The Olive Pell Bible. New York 16: Exposition Press. 1952. 393 pp. Selections from the Old and New Testaments. It contains only about one fifth of the entire two Testaments. Using the King James Version, the compiler has not changed one word. The name of the Book is on the top of each page and every chapter and verse is numbered.

OLIVER, R. T. *Syngman Rhee*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1954. 396 pp. \$5. The author of this book has known Syngman Rhee personally for many years and has worked with him both in Korea and in this country. From this close association and from a voluminous correspondence with him, he has set down, for the first time, a full story of the great Korean's life and leadership. His birth and early boyhood are here, his Confucian studies, and his first contacts with Western civilization through the missionaries who set up schools in his country. In careful detail, the author shows the development of the young man into a firebrand for Korean liberty—a sort of Patrick Henry, whose flaming spirit seven long years of imprisonment and torture were unable to quench. Then comes Rhee's sojourn in this country and the heart-breaking struggle for Korean independence, with Rhee's attempt to influence Theodore Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, FDR, and other statesmen to do something besides using Korea as a pawn in power politics. Step by step with the story of the great leader moves the chronicle of Korea's bitter fight for independence. The reader of these pages will find a revealing presentation of just what the present war is about and how vital it is to every American.

OXNAM, G. B. *I Protest*. New York 16: Harper and Bros. 1954. 186 pp. \$2.50. Bishop-Oxnam, church statesman, patriot, and upholder of the democratic way of life and

life-long foe of communism, is not speaking alone of his own ten-hour ordeal before the House Committee on Un-American Activities; he is speaking of what he considers the iniquitous and perilous type of investigation at present conducted by some congressional committees. Here is a hard-hitting, no-holds-barred exposition and description of the exact methods used to extract "information" and confessions from witnesses, learned first-hand from direct contact with the Velde committee and some of its predecessors, chiefly from the day-and-night session that took place on July 21, 1953.

PAQUIN, L. C., and IRISH, M. D. *The People Govern*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1954. 608 pp. \$4. The book is organized around eleven fundamental principles or premises of American government. Each principle is the basis for a unit in the book. In each unit there is an explanation of a principle of government and an analysis of how that principle functions in contemporary American society. Each chapter ends with suggested aids, including: key words and terms, questions for discussion, activities, and references for additional reading.

PEPE, P. S. *Personal Typing in 24 Hours*, second (text) edition. New York 18: Gregg Pub. Co. 1954. 64 pp. (8" x 11") \$1.80. This self-instructor is especially intended for a short, intensive course where typewriter touch control is the main objective. Features of this second (text) edition include: complete sentence typing from the beginning; practice copy scientifically laid out—begins with sentences containing repetitive letters, goes on to balanced hand sentences, and then to normal sentences. The text is divided into two parts. The first contains 24 one-hour assignments, each complete on one page. Each lesson contains a warm-up, automatic review, par requirements for the hour, and short, easy instructions by Typo the Tutor (a cartoon character created by the author). The second part is a reference section on the uses, care, and description of the various parts of the typewriter.

PETERSON, E. N. *Hjalmar Schacht For and Against Hitler*. Boston 20: Christopher Pub. House. 1954. 416 pp. \$5. The idea of a biography of Hjalmar Schacht developed when the author was a member of a Military Intelligence Unit in Germany after the war. Puzzled by the conflict between the universal condemnation of the economic policy in effect under Hitler, as discussed in writing in this country, and the praise for this policy heard from many Germans who had lived under it, the question occurred to him then whether there was a "Nazi" economic policy, and if so, whether it was as completely evil as its political policy. Interest in this policy was accentuated by a reading of Schacht's, "Account Settled," wherein the man whom the world recognized as a member of an infamous gang, stoutly defended his innocence, pointing to the verdict of the Nuremberg tribunal as proof. He not only announced himself as a non-Nazi, but as an *anti-Nazi*, the leader of the first plot against Hitler, again using the Nuremberg verdict as proof. It was this double problem, tied together, of Schacht and the German economy which excited the interest behind this book. This book gives the reader information about Hjalmar Schacht and his connection with the early financing of Hitler by industrialists, his "magical" success in conquering unemployment, his financing of German rearmament, especially his early resistance to Hitler, and finally his dramatic trial at Nuremberg.

PETERSON, I. J., compiler. *The First Book of Poetry*. New York 21: Franklin Watts. 1954. 128 pp. \$1.75. Here is a collection of almost a hundred time-tested poems which Miss Peterson, a teacher in the University of Chicago's Laboratory School, has found the favorites among her pupils. She has included, in addition to poems of laughter and those about animals, generous sections about interesting people, travel, the land of make-believe, etc.

PHELPS, MARGARET. *Jaro and the Golden Colt*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Co. 1954. 168 pp. \$2.75. Jaro, a Hopi Indian boy, finds himself in the path of Coronado's army as it marches through Arizona in search of gold and the Seven Cities of Cibola. The glittering spectacle of Spanish soldiers in bright dress with the sun dancing on their long spears and silver trappings amazes and frightens him. As he flees to warn his people, a spear thrown by a cruel invader quivers into the sand at his feet and he is made a slave.

Forced to serve as a burden bearer, Jaro has little opportunity for escape until he discovers the medicine plant whose curled gray leaves contain a strange drug. With the help of this and a jewel-handled knife he escapes, though not before freeing a beautiful palomino horse from the abuse of its ugly captor. After many weary days of travel, Jaro returns to the welcome scene of the red and purple canyons rimmed against the blue sky and the safety of his home atop Stone Mountain.

PHILBROOK, ELIZABETH. *Hobo Hill*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1954. 96 pp. \$2.50. It was a gloomy enough day to start with, for school was beginning the following Monday. But the gang of boys—all sixth-graders and friends for years—were trying hard to forget. They were playing a wild game of Tarzan, swinging through the "jungle" on Hobo Hill, a deserted, overgrown hill on the edge of the city, which they'd discovered and named and considered their own. Then the surveyors appeared and any fun for the day was ended. Apparently the city was planning to buy Hobo Hill, bulldoze it down, and build a huge road where the top had been. Cars and houses and tourists would take the place of trees and brooks. The boys were crushed. There would be no place left for playing and coasting and cowboy antics, no rendezvous spot away from the city streets. But one evening, a few days later, they found Hobo Bill cooking a delicious supper over a fragrant campfire. Hobo Bill was a most mysterious and educated wanderer who thought maybe the hill could be saved if the gang would follow his advice. And so the fun began—not just for the boys but for the whole town as well.

PRESSLY, T. J. *Americans Interpret Their Civil War*. Princeton: Princeton Univ. Press. 1954. 363 pp. \$5. Was the American Civil War a war of rebellion, a war between the states, a second American revolution, or an irrepressible conflict? The author of the book examines these questions and other changing meaning found in the Civil War by successive generations, from the participants of the 1860's to such histories as Ford, Turner, Beard, Rondall, Nevins, etc.

RAAEN, AAGOT. *Measure of My Days*. Fargo: North Dakota Institute for Regional Studies. 1954. 333 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of Aagot Raen, who had the hard, meager childhood of the Norwegian pioneer in North Dakota, a struggle for survival that gave her the will power and the perseverance to grow into a well-educated woman who has traveled through much of the older and more sophisticated world. Her life is a fascinating study in contrasts, for with the same interest and pleasure and absorption in what she is doing, she hikes to her one-room schools through the blizzards of her prairie home, or studies the paintings and sculpture of the Louvre and the Uffizzi Gallery; teaches in Honolulu after the excitement of an election to office; fights for better schools as County Superintendent in North Dakota; walks through the streets of Rio de Janeiro, Paris, Havana, Helsingfors, Leipzig, as she did among the prairie dog houses near the Missouri River. She is spellbound by the beauty of the Norwegian fjords, the Canadian Rockies, the Doges' Palace in Venice, and comes home to the little white house on the bluff where Mor is making brightly-colored patchwork quilts. It is a lesson in the dignity of all work to see her, back from a semester of graduate school or from a visit to Japan, taking down the storm windows of her mother's house, and getting ready for the summer by painting, sweeping, scrubbing, then even finding time and strength to clean and cook and take care of the children of some friend in need.

REID, M. H. *How To Use Portable Power Tools*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1954. 220 pp. \$2.95. This is a book on how to use and maintain portable power tools. It contains information about the methods of employing the drill, the saw, the combo tool, the router-shaper-planer, sanders, and other portable tools. There is advice on what tools to get for specific requirements, and how to oil, sharpen, and care for them. One of the most valuable features of the book is that it tells about short cuts and labor-saving ways of doing things so that one can save time on the job.

REID, P. R. *Men of Colditz*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1954. 287 pp. \$3.95. In his best-seller, *The Colditz Story*, the author told of the spectacular escapes from the Saxon

prison fortress ending with his own in 1942. Now he relates the absorbing story of Colditz and its international grab-bag of prominent and hard-to-hold prisoners from '42 until the fortress' relief by the American First Army in 1945. Guards always outnumbered the captives at Colditz, but it was still a seething beehive of activity, largely directed at escape (though a prisoners' black market and a distillery ran full tilt on the side). Lengthy tunnels were dug, taking many months, an immense amount of labor, and no mean engineering skill. Incredibly elaborate escape schemes requiring split-second timing and letter-perfect impersonations were planned to the last detail. The heartbreakingly low percentage of "home runs" deterred no one, and the undaunted planners kept on. This book is a study in nationalities, for Colditz housed not only Englishmen, but also Poles, French, Dutch, Belgians, and even, at the end, a smattering of Americans—notably Ambassador Winant's son. With humor and authority, the author contrasts national modes of behavior as they were revealed in conduct as prisoners, attitudes toward discipline, and escape techniques. He has collected his material from those he left behind in Colditz, chiefly from Dick Howe who was his successor as Escape Officer. Because he himself was no longer involved, he is able to write with less restraint of the heroic exploits of his former fellow prisoners. The result is what may well stand as a classic description of men making bearable and colorful the hell of captivity, and an unparalleled catalogue of escape thrills.

REMARQUE, E. M. *A Time To Love and A Time To Die*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1954. 378 pp. \$5.95. Ernst and Elizabeth are in love with each other. Ernst is a German soldier and is on three weeks' furlough from the Eastern front at the time when it is crumbling in the months after Stalingrad. He had been pushed through France, has seen victory and defeat in Africa, and hope interminably deferred in Russia. He is tired of war. What he wants is to return to the quiet of his parents' home. This is another novel by the author who wrote *All Quiet on the Western Front*.

RICHERT, G. H. *Retailing Principles and Practices*, third edition. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1954. 512 pp. The material in the first and second editions of this book was prepared as a text for a course in the principles and practices of retail buying, advertising, selling, and store management. It was developed by the author after many years of experience in actual store work, in training store employees, and in conducting retailing courses. The third edition is a complete revision and includes the most recent developments in the field of retailing, particularly in store organization, layout, buying, sales promotion, record keeping and control, and credit.

The chapter arrangement or sequence in the third edition has been greatly changed. The order of chapters is not only more logical but also "psychologically" better. After the orientation in marketing and retailing given in the first five chapters, the student is led through the various steps or factors in retail store operation. These are arranged, as far as possible, in the order of their learning difficulty. A great wealth of new materials has been added to the third edition. Distribution of goods and services in the United States is a dynamic, ever-changing process. From hundreds of different stores throughout the United States and territories, descriptive and illustrative materials were secured to insure that the third edition would be up to date in its content and representative of retailing practices now widely followed. Two new chapters have been added and a number of the older chapters considerably enlarged.

A most significant improvement in the third edition is the new arrangement and new materials added to the chapter endings. Review questions and points for discussion follow each chapter. Problems and projects that will help the student understand the retailing structure in his own community are divided into things to do in the classroom and things that can be best done outside of the classroom. These are followed by skill builders, the purpose of which is to help the student acquire the marketable skills possessed by successful retail salespeople.

In addition to giving the pupil an over-all knowledge of retail store operation, this textbook also aims to help him understand what is required of the individual for success in retailing. It

provides, through the skill builders at the close of each chapter, the means of developing a retailing vocabulary; helps the pupil express himself effectively through the use of correct sales English and good grammar spoken in a pleasant, well-modulated voice; and helps him acquire the facility to make store-arithmetic computations quickly and accurately.

A workbook, *Retailing Problems and Projects*, accompanies the textbook. This workbook of 219 pages provides problems and projects covering the different aspects of retailing.

RIEDMAN, S. R. *Food for People*. New York 21: Henry Schuman. 1954. 192 pp. \$2.50. The author tells the story of how people learned the facts of nutrition, what happens to food in your body, how your cells use food to furnish energy and materials to grow on. She shows how proteins, calcium, and iron in your food become part of your muscles, bone, and blood—how your body stores fats and carbohydrates, and why you need water and vitamins. With this knowledge people can now keep healthy, free from scurvy, rickets, anemia, and other kinds of malnutrition, grow taller, work better, and live longer.

ROBERTSON, KEITH. *The Wreck of the Saginaw*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1954. 144 pp. \$2.50. Stretching northwest from Hawaii, for fifteen hundred miles, is a chain of flat and barren islands. "Added dangers in an already dangerous sea," they were practically uncharted in 1870, when the U.S.S. *Saginaw* struck a reef off one of the farthest atolls. The ship soon broke under the pounding of the waves, but amazingly enough, not a single life was lost. What few supplies could be salvaged were rowed ashore in the lifeboats and the captain's gig—some crates of food, a portable boiler, a keg of sperm oil, even scraps of sail. Ninety-three men were marooned on a tiny island with thousands of miles of open sea around them and little to eat but captured seals and gooney birds. The quickest way to get help was to go for it! The chance was only one in ten that an open boat could survive the 1,500 miles to Hawaii, but five men volunteered to take that chance. One of the men was Bill Halford. He lived to tell how they rowed through endless calms, how they caught flying fish and even albatross, how sickness and starvation weakened them, and terrible storms swept away their gear.

ROBERTSON, R. B. *Of Whales and Men*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf. 1954. 312 pp. \$4.50. The world's greatest hunt for the world's largest mammal takes place each year over the trackless, treacherous seas of the South Atlantic. In this remote and forbidding region some 12,000 modern Ahabs and Queequegs relive the life so wonderfully pictured by Herman Melville—though now the ships are steel, the harpoons as devilish as modern artillery, and the hunt itself is highly organized and internationally controlled. What remains unchanged is the majestic whales themselves and the extraordinary men who pursue them. This is a firsthand account of a way of life as outlandish as any devised by the human race. As senior medical officer to one of the largest whaling expeditions of the 1950-51 season, the author sailed with the fleet for eight months over some 48,000 miles in its search for whales. From the signing on of crews in Scotland and Norway and the long initial journey down to South Georgia—that incredibly bleak "home" for off-season whaling men—through the long, bitter months of pursuit amid the gales and icebergs of the Southern Ocean, he opens up for the reader a little-known world.

ROBINSON, C. A., JR., editor. *The Spring of Civilization*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1954. 480 pp. \$7.50. The purpose of this book is to set forth for the general reader a rounded firsthand account of the meaning and significance of the greatest period in antiquity and one of the great ages in the history of man. This period is known as Periclean Athens and covers roughly the second half of the fifth century before Christ. It was the extraordinary enthusiasm and ability of the Athenians no less than the attraction which the city held for others that brought Greek civilization to its highest peak. A galaxy of brilliant men lives in the violet-crowned city from 460 to 400 B.C. This book is based on the premise that the soul of a people is most truly reflected in its art and literature. The book first acquaints the reader with the basic facts of Periclean Athens: its place and meaning in Greek history. Then come

four sections devoted to the greatest literature and art to have survived from antiquity, each accompanied by a commentary. Translations of six Greek tragedies are given in full: Aeschylus' profoundly stirring *Agamemnon*, the entire Theban saga of Sophocles (*Oedipus the King*, *Oedipus at Colonus*, *Antigone*), Euripides' famous *Medea* and his *Trojan Women*, ancient man's severest indictment of war. The next section of the book deals with philosophy. The famous Jowett translation of Plato's *Apology* and Shelley's beautifully poetic translation of Plato's *Symposium* are reprinted in their entirety. The book then takes up the art of Periclean Athens, and it is here that seventy pages of illustrations appear. This material presents chiefly the Parthenon and other famous buildings on the Acropolis—not only in general views but also by means of details which emphasize the extraordinary refinements of Periclean architecture. In addition to the major arts of architecture and sculpture, however, there are illustrations of beautiful coins, gems, and vases.

ROEDER, W. S., editor. *Dictionary of European History*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1954. 324 pp. \$6. This book provides concise information concerning most of the events and prominent personalities from 500 A.D. to the present. While it deals primarily with the data of European history, there are references to the more important happenings and figures in the history of the colonies, of the Western Hemisphere and the Near and Far East. The *Dictionary* has been designed especially to help understand the situation in contemporary Europe. Hence, special emphasis is placed upon the events and personalities connected with what are the major powers of our day. This emphasis emerges in both a numerical and a quantitative sense. There are proportionately more references dealing with the history of the chief states of our time, and each of these references is longer and more detailed than in the case of the events and personages of the minor powers. Although this book gives more attention to the data of political history than to those of social, economic and cultural history, the latter broader phases of history are not neglected. Likewise, the political figures of the past are given precedence over those famed in other realms of human endeavor.

ROOSEVELT, ELEANOR, and HICKOK, LORENA. *Ladies of Courage*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1954. 320 pp. \$3.75. One of the outstanding trends of the twentieth century has been the departure of women from their traditional role in the home and their entry into worlds that were once reserved exclusively for men—business, the professions, the press, and above all, politics. Now, thirty-four years after the 19th amendment to the Constitution first gave women the vote and marked a great milestone in their progress toward equality of the sexes, Eleanor Roosevelt, herself one of the outstanding women of the modern world, and Lorena Hickok show what women can do in public life by telling the stories of women who have been successful in politics, locally or on the state or national level. The authors have personally interviewed many of these women especially for this book and have had extensive correspondence with most of the remainder.

ROSE, A. C. *Historic American Highways*. Washington 4, D. C.: American Assn. of State Highway Officials, 917 National Press Bldg. 1953. 183 pp. (9" x 12") \$4. This is volume II of "Public Roads of the Past." Volume I is a narrative history of roads, road building methods, instruments, and vehicles from 3500 B.C. to 1800 A.D. Volume II covers American road development from Indian trails to parkways. It contains maps and articles on famous routes and expeditions and the development of the early roads into the present highway system. The book also contains a comprehensive bibliography. Volume I is available at \$3 per copy, but the complete set of two volumes may be secured for \$6 with foreign postage extra.

ROSS, WALTER. *Diet To Suit Yourself*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1954. 160 pp. 25c pocket edition. This is another Signet Key pocket-size book. Based on a series of scientific experiments conducted by the medical department of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, this volume presents

expert and inexpensive advice on a diet that is believed will make the person following the advice healthier and happier.

RUNES, D. D. *Letters to My Daughter*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1954. 141 pp. \$2.50. This is the personal testament of a distinguished philosopher of our time, a man of gifted and original insights, who bequeaths here a rich heritage of wisdom which we are privileged to share.

SCHOOR, GENE. *The Jack Dempsey Story*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1954. 196 pp. \$2.75. The punch-packed story of the greatest heavyweight champion in the history of boxing. Jack Dempsey, the Mormon youngster whose ancestors were Cherokee and Choctaw Indians, battled his way out of poverty to become the heavyweight champion at the age of twenty-four and one of the most respected citizens of the world. In 1911 the sports writers of America voted him the greatest fighter of this half-century, and he continues to be a champion among sports fans, second only in popularity to Babe Ruth.

SCHURZ, W. L. *This New World*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1954. 442 pp. \$6. This book on Latin American civilization consists of ten main sections which summarize the place of the twenty Latin American republics in the world today, details the various elements which have helped to mold their character and civilization, and makes a strong bid for international understanding. It is the result of many years of travel, observation, and study by a distinguished historian and expert on the countries south of us. The author's descriptive survey of The Environment, The Indian, The Spaniard, The Conqueror, The Negro, The Foreigner, The Church, The Woman, The City, and The Brazilian are not ephemeral accounts of surface currents in these countries. Instead, these chapters are a presentation of the more permanent elements in Latin American life, stressing traditional patterns and current living conditions.

SCHWARTZ, JULIUS. *Through the Magnifying Glass*. New York 36: Whittlesey House. 330 W. 42nd St. 1954. 142 pp. \$2.50. The author describes interesting and fascinating uses of the magnifying glass. He shows, for instance, how an inexpensive magnifying glass can reveal the flashes of exploding atoms, the fantastic face of insects, how crystals grow into their perfect shapes, why dust can give rise to life, how to tell a fish's age by the rings on its scales, why it is hard to counterfeit money, and why your fingerprints are practically your signature. Illustrated and indexed.

SCOTT, J. U. *Cues for Careers*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Co. 1954. 251 pp. \$2.75. This book contains help on how to choose a career and how to prepare for jobs in industry, the professions, service groups, and in self-employment. Most young women enter the business world in the years between school's end and marriage. Therefore, the author places keynote emphasis on the importance of matching ability, desire, and temperament to the job. The person who is well suited to her work is a happy person, and the working years of her life can be rewarding and exciting. The presentation is based on research and a discriminate sifting of the facts brought out by personal interviews with authorities in the many occupations she discusses.

SEALE, ERVIN. *Ten Words That Will Change Your Life*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1954. 188 pp. \$2.50. Thousands of persons have found a new approach to life after listening to the author's vigorous, practical, and inspiring sermons. In this book he sets forth the fundamental principles that govern life—the Ten Commandments. According to his interpretation, this Great Law is the key to the good life. The author holds no brief for fear and negative thinking. Through confidence and goodness, anything is possible. Therefore, if one is sure of his own ability—of his power—he will succeed. Starting with the Ten Commandments, Dr. Seale explains the law of nature that operates through us when we think positively. He discusses each Commandment separately, explaining clearly how each one can operate meaningfully in daily life and thought. They are, he says, prescriptions for thinking, not prohibitions, and right thinking will inevitably lead to right action. That is the secret of life and of happiness. To believe negatively is to deny the goodness of God. To be swayed by

material things, by the world of sensations, is to listen to false gods. But to believe and understand that you can have everything you want if you think and act in accordance with the Great Law is to believe positively.

SEIFERT, SHIRLEY. *Farewell, My General*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1954. 315 pp. \$3.50. General J. E. B. Stuart, the great cavalry commander of the Confederacy, the dashing young general whom Lee called his "eyes," is a glamorous and well-known figure in American history. The author gives us a portrait of the unforgettable woman whose destiny was interlocked with Jeb Stuart's from Indian fighting days through the climactic agony of the War Between the States. From that moment at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, when the handsome young lieutenant, who rode like a Cossack and sang hymns lustily, and the spirited teenager, the daughter of his colonel, first laid eyes on each other, Jeb Stuart's heart belonged only to Flora Cooke. Except for the Great Conflict, Flora Stuart might have lived out her life in the eventful but customary fashion of the Army wife, enduring the waiting, the moving about, the tensions, and separations that come with marriage to an officer on active duty. Then came the cataclysm of '61 and her 29-year-old husband overnight became a general. Now he belonged to the Confederacy, a popular hero, and now too he faced something far more dangerous than the Indians of the West. Even as Jeb Stuart became a great commander through the crucibles of Manassas and Chancellorsville, Flora, his carefree young wife, became a woman of courage and ingenuity, moving with the battle lines and snatching the few cherished moments left to the two of them. Here is the story of a romance and of a marriage as eventful and vital as the times in which they lived—a novel that lives and grips with telling force.

SHIMMIN, A. N. *The University of Leeds: The First Half Century*. New York 22: Cambridge Univ. Press. 1954. 246 pp. (7½" x 10¼") \$4.25. The first part of the book traces the historical and geographical background of the University's growth and describes its rapid advance during its first fifty years. The second part describes the trend of present-day teaching and research in each faculty of the University. The book includes pen-and-ink drawings of University buildings, reproduced from originals.

SHIPPEN, K. B. *I Know a City*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1954. 192 pp. \$2.75. Here are the comfortable Dutch burgher of the middle seventeenth century, sleeping snugly behind the carved wooden doors of his built-in wall bed; the English housewife in full skirts and tightly laced bodice, shopping for the day's food (butter was 16 cents a pound in 1664!); the children of well-to-do families studying the "polite arts" in private schools, and less fortunate boys and girls working at whatever jobs would earn a little extra for the family's income. Even in those days it was a big undertaking to provide proper food and water supply, lighting, fire, and police protection. And as more and more people of all kinds and conditions came to live in the now flourishing seaport city, the problems became more and more complicated. But always there have been practical, public-spirited men and women willing to work to make their city a healthy, happy place to live.

SHUSTER, G. N. *Religion Behind the Iron Curtain*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1954. 303 pp. \$4. Here is the revealing story of the struggle for religious survival of that vast number of Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish people living under communist domination. Recent years have brought to light the tragic, inhuman suffering, the unfair trials, ridicule, and death which these people have endured. Using documents, eyewitness reports and personal knowledge, the author has written this account of the communist efforts to erase religious opposition. His book reveals all the many facets of their pattern of destruction. It is a frightening picture which he shows, but it is one which concerns everyone interested in the freedom of religion and the future of mankind.

SHUTE, NEVIL. *Slide Rule*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1954. 250 pp. \$3.50. Shute was born at the turn of the century so that his lifetime nearly coincides with the years of powered flight. And he came of age in the Twenties, that exuberant decade when

aviation reached its own majority. For a young man with a scientific turn of mind, looking for adventure and solid work, the opportunity was there for the taking.

Shute's first job in aviation was as a calculator for the firm of De Havilland; and in 1938, when writing absorbed his full energies, he had just resigned from the position of managing director of Airspeed, Ltd., the company which he had founded in the early Thirties. In between lay not only the excitement of working with aeroplanes at a time when every change of design and performance was revolutionary, but the joys and sorrows of piloting a growing business from precarious beginnings to assured success.

SMITH, A. J. *Immortality*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1954. 256 pp. \$3. The survival of some part of the human spirit, or personality, beyond the grave has been felt as an intuitive truth by men since the beginning of time. Philosophically, such survival was logical. Theology made it a tenet of religious faith. And back of the intuition, the logic, and the faith was the written and oral record of experience—of which, perhaps, Christ risen from the dead was the most dramatic illustration. All this was enough for the mind of man up to and through the medieval period. He accepted the authority of religion and the logic of philosophy, which assured him that what he felt intuitively was indeed true. What happened between the thirteenth and the twentieth centuries to cause man to turn his back on religion and philosophy and question his own intuition? The answer is: science. Science was materialistic and skeptical; its method was experimental; and only what could be demonstrated experimentally in the laboratory had any meaning for it. Moreover, it was tremendously successful. When men want to bestow their highest praise on something, they no longer say "it's logical," or "it's scriptural." They say "it's scientific." For the modern mind, nothing can be accepted that science does not accept. The survival of the human personality beyond the grave will be questioned by moderns until science accepts it. Is there scientific evidence in support of man's earliest intuition? Here it is: the words of the great scientists themselves, men like Arthur H. Compton, Robert A. Millikan, Arthur Eddington, and Sir James Jeans.

SMITH, F. C. *The First Book of Conservation*. New York 21: Franklin Watts. 1954. 70 pp. \$1.75. This is an account of how rivers, lakes, forests, wildlife, the green growing plants, and the earth itself all depend on nature's intricate interrelationships. Pictures are by Rene Martin.

SMITH, LILLIAN. *The Journey*. Cleveland 2: World Pub. Co. 1954. 256 pp. \$3.50. The journey began with a memory. No one had understood Carl. No one had loved him. Among the children in the small community, Carl had been shunned, ridiculed, chased after, tormented—and forgotten. But unexpectedly, long years afterward, Lillian Smith remembered Carl. She saw him as a giant. Why had this image of Carl changed? And why did other images emerge—images of impudent Frashy with her wild tales of what happened when you swallowed a watermelon seed, of Little Grandma who had shot a panther, of mother and father and brother? Images, too, of so many others—the persons who fill a lifetime, who possess a reality that suddenly grows shadowy on the retina of memory.

SOROKIN, P. A., editor. *Forms and Techniques of Altruistic and Spiritual Growth*. Boston 8: Beacon Press. 1954. 488 pp. \$6. The great religions and the great teachers have always pointed out that good will begets good will, that a soft answer turneth away wrath, and that altruistic love is more fruitful than selfish hatred. But is it really possible for men to make the transformation—from the savage egoistic creatures they were born, into altruistic and spiritual beings? And if so, how can this be accomplished? What are the techniques? The point of view of this symposium is that the transformation can be made; and the chapters present the effective techniques—covering the ground all the way from a study on "Techniques for Reducing Group Prejudice" by Gordon W. Allport to one on "Yoga and the Physiological and Therapeutic Effects of Voluntary Respiration" by Wladimir Bisclier. The studies of the symposium fall roughly into five parts. Part One deals with the philosophical background and

techniques of various Yogas, Buddhism, Zen Buddhism, Sufism, and the Hesychast tradition in Orthodox Christianity, as well as the technique of prayer, together with the problems of the origins of these techniques and of their significance for our time. Part Two is devoted to scientific verification of the efficacy of some of the ego-transcending techniques, namely, the techniques of voluntary respiration and of specific postures. It contains also a pioneering instrumental exploration of the bodily changes experienced in the state of mental concentration and deconcentration, of aggressive and altruistic experience, and especially during the performance of certain Yoga exercises. Part Three gives an account of the ways and means of altruistic and spiritual education among Hutterite and Mennonite communities, marked by notable friendliness and unselfish service both within and without these groups. Part Four is concerned with investigations of various problems related to the dynamics and etiology of friendship and of harmonious human relationships. Part Five consists of the studies of various ego-centered techniques for peaceful settlement, mitigation, and transformation of inimical relationships into amicable ones.

SOULE, GEORGE. *Economics for Living*. New York 21: Henry Schuman. 1954. 161 pp. \$2.50. This book explains such matters as what makes prices what they are, what money really is, something about banks and how they work, the effects of inventions and other technical improvements, why the United States has the highest material standard of living in the world, the part played by international trade. The author shows the way government fits into the economic picture. He stresses the growing importance of education and other professional services, both to the individual and to the nation as a whole. At the end, the book looks into the future to outline what further advances can be made if the American people adopt wise policies and enjoy good fortune. It indicates in what kinds of work the chances for employment are likely to grow, and in what kinds they are likely to shrink. And it raises the question of how we all may make the best use of a rapidly increasing economic resource—leisure time.

STEPHENS, P. A. *Forever Youthful*. New York 1: Vantage Press. 1954. 94 pp. \$2.50. This book contains advice on physical and mental adjustments for our various age levels, the rejuvenating powers of the endocrine glands, a balanced diet that includes proper vitamins, special exercises with emphasis on good posture, how to cope with the problems of early and later adulthood, how to prepare for retirement years, and many related areas.

STONE, IRVING. *Immortal Wife*. Condensed and simplified by L. R. Davis. New York 22: Hanover House. 1954. 190 pp. \$1.50. Jessie Benton Fremont was one of the most exciting women in American history. Beloved and hated, feared and feted, she created a marriage with John Charles Fremont which left its mark on nineteenth-century America. At sixteen, she fell lastingly in love with John Charles Fremont, a daring young topographer of the unexplored West. The spectacular rise and fall of their fortunes was linked to historical highlights—Western expansion, California's break from Mexico, the Gold Rush, the Civil War. Fremont, famous as an adventurer, was favored in one presidential election by both Republicans and Democrats, faced two courts-martial, amassed and lost a huge fortune. Jessie, through it all, steadfastly preserved what was dearest to them both—their marriage.

STREET, JAMES. *The Velvet Doublet*. Condensed and simplified by James Street, Jr. New York 22: Hanover House. 1954. 192 pp. \$1.50. This is the story of a sailor with adventure in his blood in the dark days under the Spanish Inquisition. It is a story of the most dazzling years in the history of navigation and discovery—the late fifteenth century, when the sword of Islam forbade entrance to Cathay—to the spices, gold, and aloes of the East; while to the West lay the Ocean Sea—and the unknown. It is also the story of that brave, arrogant, determined visionary, Christopher Columbus, with whom Juan Rodrigo sailed the uncharted seas. First ever to sight the land of the New World, Juan earned the coveted Velvet Doublet—a prize promised but denied him by Columbus.

SUBERCASEAUX, BENJAMIN. *Jemmy Button*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1954. 392 pp. \$4. This is a sea story and a portrayal of the clash of savagery with civilization. Its scenes range from Buckingham Palace to Tierra del Fuego; its characters include such diverse persons as Jemmy Button, a young Fuegian native and Charles Darwin, the famous anthropologist. It is based on Captain Fitz-Roy's *Diary* and Darwin's *Voyage of the Beagle*. But the author has used the historical story only as a starting point for a fascinating fictional adventure. Robert Fitz-Roy, captain of the HMS *Beagle*, had the virtues and faults necessary to be both loved and hated. Having explored the sea and unknown lands around Cape Horn during the 1830's, he was drawn to and fascinated by the untutored savages of Tierra del Fuego. Convinced that these natives could be civilized, he takes four back to England and tries patiently and lovingly to educate them in a Christian manner. The Fuegians, lost in their new environment, cannot understand the morals and ethics of civilization. Boat Memory, the most warm-hearted and sensitive of the four, is very shortly killed by one of civilization's diseases. Jemmy Button, Fitz-Roy's favorite, is jealous of his affection for the other natives. He plots and plans to gain his love exclusively and, when he finally runs away, his escapades prove embarrassing and costly. On his return he slowly uses new and more terrifying tactics. Fuegia whom Fitz-Roy sees as a defenseless and innocent young woman turns into a fury; York Minster, a handsome youth, proves impossible to control. It is not long before Fitz-Roy looks upon these lusty, primitive children as diabolical creatures that he can no longer save and never tame.

SUNDBORG, GEORGE. *Hail Columbia: The 30-year Struggle for Grand Coulee Dam*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1954. 485 pp. \$5.75. While the events which the author relates in this book were taking place in and around the state of Washington, he was living there, attending high school and the University of Washington, working as newspaper reporter, city editor and Associated Press correspondent, in logging camps and on a Pacific coast tanker. In 1945, while passing through Spokane, he met James O'Sullivan, "the grand old man of Grand Coulee Dam," and, sensing a great story, began the research and writing which has occupied almost all his leisure hours since and has resulted in this book.

In it the author traces the history of the Grand Coulee from 1909 "when a stranger dropped off the east-bound Great Northern train at Ephrata, Washington." Ephrata was a town of 150 inhabitants and the stranger looking for a piece of land on Moses Lake was James O'Sullivan. In 1929, when O'Sullivan was 52 years old, he went to work for the Grand Coulee Dam project, still a far-off dream. In 1939, the Pacific Northwest region's manufacturing industries combined used only 2,651,000,000 kilowatt hours of electric power. "By 1947 aluminum reduction plants alone would be using 4,755,000,000 K.W.H. in the Pacific Northwest, while the total for manufacturing industries would have grown to 9,063,000,000 K.W.H.—some 42 per cent of all the nation's aluminum would be produced in the area served by Grand Coulee and Bonneville dams." By the end of 1941 the dam was 90 per cent complete and in 1943 Grand Coulee power was used to split the atom and manufacture plutonium. In 1954 Grand Coulee is the greatest producer of electric power on earth, bringing more than a million acres of desert land into production. James O'Sullivan died in 1949, when he was almost seventy-three years old, shortly following the dedication of O'Sullivan Dam in his honor.

TAYLOR, ALICE. *South Africa*. New York 11: Holiday House. 1954. 26 pp. \$1.25. This is an interesting story about one of the most fortunate nations today. It is rich in natural wealth but it has its serious problems. Cultural, economic, and political factors, as well as geography and history, are used to bring into focus the present and future importance of this country. Illustrated in color.

TAYLOR, DAVID. *Lights Across the Delaware*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1954. 367 pp. \$3.75. The Christmas season of 1776 brought little joy to the forlorn armies of Washington and less still to Phoebe Runnels, a spirited farm girl, torn between her devotion to the revolutionists' struggle and her pacifist Quaker lover. There were the British, fortified

by Hessian mercenaries and fat town living, across the river at Trenton while the remnants of the colonial troops waited, hungry, and bitterly cold, for action or surrender. There were Washington and his aides, desperately planning a coup whose failure would mean almost certain defeat for their cause. And, for Phoebe, there was Wheeler, a quiet, solid contrast to her buoyancy, who sympathized with the rebels but remained stubbornly faithful to his religious convictions although the conflict was a constant torment to him. While Phoebe is the focus, the author does not confine his story to her. His canvas includes other ordinary citizens like Phoebe's father and neighbors, who risk their lives in defiance of the invaders—and others who, just as fanatically, provide information to the redcoats. The contemptuous confidence of Cornwallis and Rall is reflected in the whole English camp, an ironic prelude to their downfall.

TEBBEL, JOHN. *George Washington's America*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1954. 478 pp. \$5. Young George was on the move at an early age, and before he died, he saw the Eastern half of America as few, if any, of his contemporaries were able to see it. He saw it as surveyor, frontier fighter, land owner, Commander of the Continental Army, President of the United States, and politician in spite of himself. His travels carried him from Kittery, Maine, to Savannah, Georgia, north to the shores of Lake Champlain, and west to Lake Ontario and the beautiful Ohio country. Wherever he went, he found himself involved with the problems, great and small, of his exciting times, and with people of every degree. As he moved over the face of the country, he was many men to these people—a symbol of national aspirations, a rich man on a horse who, according to some senators, threatened the Republic; a Virginia gentleman; an ambitious colonel of Virginia militia; a wealthy holder of lands; and to many Americans, a savior and very nearly a godlike figure.

THEOBALD, R. A. *The Final Secret of Pearl Harbor*. New York 10: Devin-Adair Co. 1954. 222 pp. \$3.50. There are three ways of "Remembering Pearl Harbor." *First*, as that infamous day, December 7, 1941, when the Japanese sneak-attacked our Pacific fleet without provocation. *Second*, as the day the United States suffered its greatest military disaster in history with 3,303 dead and 1,272 wounded. *Third*, as the day President Franklin D. Roosevelt succeeded in taking a reluctant nation into a successful war against the Axis powers. It is with the *third* aspect that this book deals. Whether F.D.R. was justified in taking the course he took is for history to decide. Involved is the age-old question, whether the end can ever quite justify the means. In this particular instance, two fine officers—Admiral Kimmel and General Short—were saddled with the blame after thousands of lives had been sacrificed and a great fleet humbled.

TOPORCER, GEORGE. *Baseball from Back Yard to Big League*. New York 16: Sterling Pub. Co., 213 E. 37th St. 1954. 160 pp. \$2.50. The author, who reached the pinnacle of success in the Big Leagues, tells how he and other players of fame won baseball games. This book will be of interest not only to those thousands of youths who hope to be a success in baseball but also to the spectator.

TOYNBEE, PHILIP. *The Garden to the Sea*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1954. 219 pp. \$3. As Adam lies in a hospital bed, his mind races back over the events of years past. In a conversation with his composite self—Noel, the self of his innocent years; Tom, the self of his fall from innocence; and Charley, the self of his punishment and also of his conscience—Adam relives a life begun in a country house near the sea with his wife Daisy. War comes and Adam leaves her and the house to become a fighter pilot, changing from the tranquil Noel into the roistering Tom. Returning home after the war to a wife filled with barren bitterness, Adam assumes the personality of Charley, a cynical debauchee. Almost inevitably Daisy falls in love with Willy, a lonely young man the couple had befriended out of pity. Torn by jealousy and self-recrimination, Adam tries first to hold Daisy, then quarrels with her, and finally, in a fit of violence, strikes her. As he walks out of the house and its seaside garden, Adam's fall is complete. But somehow, in reliving the past, Adam finds a new

strength. As the book ends, the voices of the other selves—Noel, Tom, and Charley—have been silenced. And in the silence Adam becomes a whole man once again and is strong in the reaffirmation of hope.

TURPIN, EDNA, and WINGO, A. L. *This Is Our Land*. Boston 20: Christopher Pub. House. 1954. 71 pp. \$1.75. This book is dedicated to the cause of conservation in the belief that all who read it will gain new hope, courage, and inspiration to save our land. It presents in graphic style Miss Turpin's keen insights concerning the exploration, development, and use and mis-use of our rich natural endowment.

WARREN, BILLY, *Headquarters Ranch*. New York 17: David McKay Co. 1954. 222 pp. \$2.50. Somewhere on the JC Bar are papers that will prove fourteen-year-old David Cain to be the rightful owner of the ranch now that his parents have been killed and his older brother Ross is missing in an Indian raid. But the mysterious buffalo hunter, "Bullet" Gordon, considers himself the owner. Gordon is not only a difficult opponent, a man who would incite Indians to massacre, but is also a dangerous opponent as well, especially for a boy who has only determination to fight for his rights and but two friends to help him. These are Red John, an old man formerly in the Cains' employ, and Julio, an Indian chief's son.

WELLMAN, P. I. *The Iron Mistress*. Condensed and simplified by J. L. Summers. New York 22: Hanover House. 1954. 190 pp. \$1.50. Frontiersman, fortune hunter, soldier, duelist, inventor of a knife that bears his name—this was James Bowie, a fabulous and nearly forgotten hero of the American frontier. He fought incredible duels. He dealt in slave trading and gambled recklessly against unbelievable odds. He led a group of Texas irregulars in a spectacular Indian battle and was one of the doomed defenders of the Alamo. Two women exerted a great influence on his life. One was Judalon de Bornay, a proud, self-willed New Orleans beauty. The other was Ursula de Veramendi, lovely and tragic daughter of the vice-governor of Mexican Texas. But his bowie knife, the talisman to which he sometimes ascribed supernatural powers, was his iron mistress and irreplaceable companion.

WHITTON, M. O. *These Were the Women*. New York 22: Hastings House. 1954. 302 pp. \$3.75. Here is a review of woman's role in the development of American civilization from Revolutionary days down to the Civil War. The author crowds her canvas with sketches of women of all stations and conditions. We have a lively composite portrait of the American female in all her variety and fascination during the early era of our Republic—famous social leaders, frontier heroines, teachers, artists, writers, tavern keepers, and propagandists of great causes. We see the awe-inspiring Mary Washington whose spelling was unorthodox, although she was the matriarch of the country's most notable family; Dorothy Hancock, queen of New England society, and also John Hancock's blowsy mistress; Ann Royall, originator of the travelogue and first woman reporter; heroines who beat back attacks on their log cabins by British and Indians; Mme. Lalaurie, New Orleans sadist; Lotta Crabtree, a pupil of the renowned Lola Montez, who danced her way from a mining town to Windsor Palace. The great female abolitionists and women's rights leaders march in the same procession with Sarah Hale, first woman editor, who believed that a woman's place was the home.

WILDES, H. E. *Typhoon in Tokyo*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1954. 356 pp. \$4.50. This is the story of the occupation of Japan, its origins, its personnel, its philosophy, its methods, and its aftermath. It is the story also of the greatest civilian overseas commitment ever undertaken by Americans. The greater portion of this book has grown out of personal experience—as research specialist for Japan in the Office of War Information; as assistant in drafting of the new Japanese constitution; in preparation of papers on surrender negotiations, the initial arrival of Allied troops in Japan, repatriation, army activities in the occupied areas. Official material includes directives from the joint chiefs of staff (originally highly classified, later cleared for general use), instructions from the supreme commander for the allied powers to the Japanese government, laws, ordinances, regulations. Because the basic directives, the initial actions, the

patterns of control and of such supervision as occupationnaires gave—all were phenomena of the first few months, the personalities and accomplishments of General of the Armies Douglas MacArthur and his early staff assistants receive primary attention.

WOLSELEY, R. E. *Face to Face with India*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1954. 192 pp. \$2.50. What is the real India like—the India that seldom gets into the headlines? How do her people live and work? What has Christianity and the service of its missions meant to them? The author picks people in different walks of life and presents them as they are and how they think, and reports what they talk about. He had taken the city of Nagpur for his locale, but his people can be found all over India. In each chapter he highlights a social problem and then lets the people speak for themselves.

WOODHAM-SMITH, CECIL. *The Reason Why*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1954. 300 pp. \$4. The author tells the extraordinary story behind one of the most fantastic blunders in military history—the terrible and tragic defeat of the famous Light Brigade during the Crimean War. From a mass of unpublished papers, she has unearthed devastating evidence as to why more than five hundred men met death in a charge that has since become immortal. The key to the mystery lies far back in English tradition—in the system of the British Army at the time and in the lives and personalities of two unusual men, Lord Cardigan and Lord Lucan.

WORDEN, W. L. compiler. *General Dean's Story*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1954. 331 pp. \$5. The world is already aware of the bitter and dramatic circumstances of General Dean's capture in Korea and imprisonment by the communists, for the story has been well reported in the press and a portion of this volume has appeared as a serial in the *Saturday Evening Post*. But the whole story is the one the American public has been waiting for, and it is here made available for the first time. In these pages the reader will be privileged to come to know intimately a man of courage and compassion, resourceful and hardy in mind and body—the kind of American whose heroism and modesty give us confidence and hope for the future. In one of the great testaments of the human spirit, General Dean tells a story of fortitude and survival against tremendous odds that will be read by other Americans with deep emotion and deep pride in one of their countrymen. Indexed.

Pamphlets for Pupil - Teacher Use

The Administrator—and the School Safety Program. New York 3: Center for Safety Education, Division of General Education, New York Univ. 1954. 16 pp. 25c. Suggests methods by which a child safety program can be strengthened; sketches the main features of a sound program.

ALTMAYER, A. J. *Your Stake in Social Security*. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th St. 1954. 28 pp. 25c. Although supporting President Eisenhower's recommendations for providing additional groups with the protection of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, the author goes somewhat further in urging that all of the groups now excluded be admitted, including more than 3,000,000 farm operators, some 2,700,000 farm employees, 100,000 to 200,000 domestic workers now excluded by the provisions requiring "regular" employment, and about 500,000 self-employed persons in professional groups now excluded.

He also goes further than the President in urging that the wage be raised from the present \$3,600 to at least \$6,000. This would make possible a substantial increase in the maximum benefits, and he suggests that the benefit amount be further boosted by 1 per cent for every year that the worker has been covered. "Benefits should be paid to insured workers who become permanently and totally disabled before the age of 65," he adds. "Their wage loss and need of benefits are the same or greater," he explains, "than those retiring because of age."

ANDERSON, O. W. *National Family Survey of Medical Costs and Voluntary Health Insurance*. New York 17: Health Information Foundation, 420 Lexington Ave. 1954. 80 pp.

A preliminary report summarizing a survey made by the National Opinion Research Center of the University of Chicago.

ARTER, R. M. *Living in Chelsea*. New York 11: Center for Human Relations Studies, 157 W. 13th St. 1954. 44 pp. 50c. A study of human relations in the area served by the Hudson Guild. A detailed study culminating in a summary of major problems and unmet needs.

BARR, W. M. *An Analysis of the Current Expenditures of Selected Indiana High Schools*. Bloomington: Indiana Univ. Bookstore. 1954 (May). 36 pp. \$1. This pamphlet prepared by the Division of Research and Field Services of the University is a study of 84 Indiana public high schools with an enrollment of more than 200 in grades 9 to 12 for the school year 1952-53, as reported to the State Department of Public Instruction.

BECKOFF, SAMUEL. *Syllabus in Remedial English—Eleventh Year*. Brooklyn: Board of Education, 110 Livingston St. 1954. 22 pp. (Mimeo) 25c. Offers the teacher practical methods and devices for imparting information and teaching the skills of group discussion to pupils with IQ's between 76 and 90 and a range in reading grade level between 8.5 and 10.5.

BLYTH, M. I. *Blyth Second-Year Algebra Test*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co. 1954. 2 forms, each 6 pages; and a *Manual of Directions*, 7 pp. \$2.80 net per package of 35; machine-scored Answer Sheets, \$1.15 net per 35; Specimen Set, 35c. This test available in 2 forms is provided for the end of a typical second-year course, measuring competence in the basic skills of algebra and ability to understand and apply algebraic facts and concepts. Specifically, it measures achievement in the following areas: fundamental operations—application to integral and fractional expressions; factoring; operations with radicals, exponents, and logarithms; variation, simple progressions, determinants, complex numbers; solution of linear equations—fractional; literal; one or two unknowns; graphic solutions; solution of quadratic equations—one or two unknowns; use of the quadratic formula; number and kind of roots; and graphical and symbolic expression; problem solving.

This test is designed for convenience and flexibility of testing. Test booklets may be re-used if student responses are recorded on separate answer sheets. Answer sheets are quickly and easily scored by hand or by test-scoring machine. Responses may be recorded in the spaces provided in the test booklets, if desired; a separate key is available for hand-scoring the test booklets.

The content of the test is based on analysis of widely used textbooks, courses of study from representative school systems, and a variety of professional literature in the field of secondary-school math. Working time is 45 minutes with the over-all time for administering 55 minutes.

BRASTED, F. K. *Education-Industry Co-operation*. New York 20: National Association of Manufacturers, 14 West 49th St. 1954. 30 pp. Free. A study of the direct relationships existing between industry and education in Connecticut, a pattern for similar studies on this subject. Also available free from the same source is a 32-page pamphlet entitled *This We Believe About Education* by the Educational Advisory Committee and the Educational Advisory Council of the NAM.

BRYSON, LYMAN. *Reason and Discontent*. Pasadena, Calif.: Fund for Adult Education. 1954. 48 pp. A series of three lectures discussing the lack of liberal adult education given at three centers of the University of Wisconsin—the first in Madison on September 23, 1953; the second in Wausaw on September 30; and the third in Milwaukee on October 1.

BYROODE, H. A. *The Middle East*. Washington 25, D. C.: The Dept. of State. 1954. 28 pp. Free. Deals with problems of the Middle East. Also available from the same source are: *American Abroad* by Francis J. Colligon and *The China Problem and U. S. Policy* by Edwin W. Martin.

CALDERWOOD, J. D., and DE RYCKE, LAURENCE. *A Door to the Present*. New York 22: Committee for Economic Development, 444 Madison Ave. 1954 (May). 40 pp. A discussion of current programs and problems of technical assistance in international relations.

A Call for Action To Meet the Impending Increase in College and University Enrollment. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1954. 32 pp. Describes factually the future impact of the increasing college-age population and suggests certain fundamental questions which each institution will face by 1970 when increase in college and university enrollments will be from 50 to 100 per cent. Also contains a self-analysis blank for institutions and articles as background material.

Can I Get The Job? Detroit 2: Dept. of Public Relations, General Motors. 1954. 36 pp. Free in limited quantities to counselors. The latest in General Motors' guidance series intended for use in high-school student counseling. Seeks to point out to young people graduating from school some things to do in preparation for their first jobs in business and industry. Two others appearing earlier were *Can I Be Engineer?* and *Can I Be a Craftsman?*

Careers in Life Insurance. New York 22: Institute of Life Insurance, 400 Madison Ave. 1954. 32 pp. Tells about career possibilities in the life insurance business.

Circulating Exhibitions, 1954-1955. New York 19: The Museum of Modern Art, 11 West 53rd St. 1954. 48 pp. Free. This catalog describes the current exhibitions and teaching materials which the Museum of Modern Arts offers for rental and for sale to educational and non-profit organizations. In most instances the works of art provided are original; but there are also less expensive exhibitions of reproductions, no less authoritatively prepared, for use in smaller institutions and communities. Full instruction about renting, etc., is also given in the booklet.

Citizens and Their Schools. New York 36: National Citizens Commission, 2 W. 45th St. 1954. 28 pp. A summary of the speeches and group discussions at the 5th annual citizens' Assembly on Education in San Francisco on March 19-20, 1954.

Civil Defense and Atomic Welfare. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1954. 52 pp. 25c. A selected reading list of 618 sources of information prepared by the U. S. Atomic Energy Commission for the Federal Civil Defense Administration.

Civil Defense and Higher Education. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Ave., N.W. 1954. 19 pp. Free. A statement of what institutions of higher learning can do.

CLAYTON, A. S. *The Organization of the School of Education, Indiana University, for Policy Development.* Bloomington: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana Univ. 1954 (March). 48 pp. \$1. States how the School of Education at Indiana University is organized for the study and improvement of the policies basic to its functions and programs.

Color Dynamics for Grade Schools, High Schools, Colleges. Pittsburgh 22: Pittsburgh Plate Glass Co., 632 Fort Duquesne Blvd. 1954. 20 pp. Shows the beneficial effects which can be obtained by both students and faculty members with the use of this scientific painting system.

Consumers Look at Farm Price Policies. Oxford, Ohio: Council on Consumer Information, Miami Univ. 1954. 40 pp. 50c. A discussion pamphlet on consumer education. Membership is available at \$2. This includes a *Newsletter* and several booklets per year.

Contact Plus. Washington 6, D. C.: National School Public Relations Association, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1954. 64 pp. \$1. A handbook of ideas for improving school community relations.

COOK, A. H. *Adult Education in Citizenship in Postwar Germany.* New York 22: The Fund for Adult Education, 595 Madison Ave. 1954. 76 pp. Free. A report on what German adult education has done on citizenship training since the end of World War II.

Court Decisions on Teacher Tenure. Washington 6, D. C.: Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom of the NEA. 1954. 24 pp. 25c. Reports 22 court decisions in 14 states dealing with tenure or continuing contract laws during the calendar year 1953.

COURTER, C. V. *Annual Statistical Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1952-53.* Cincinnati, Ohio: Office of the Supt. of Public Schools. 1954. 48 pp. (8½" x 11"). Contains

78 tables on general information, pupil personnel, the professional and civil service staff, special services, summer and evening schools, building and finance, and expenditures.

_____. *Foundation Values of American Life: for Major Emphasis in the Cincinnati Public Schools*. Cincinnati, Ohio: Office of the Supt. of Public Schools. 1954. 40 pp. (8½" x 11") The superintendent's annual report in words and pictures. In reality, a statement of the school system's philosophy.

CPEA. Washington 6, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W. 1954. 32 pp. 10c. Accounts are given in this report of three years of progress of the Co-operative Program in Educational Administration programs which are being directed from regional pilot centers established at Harvard University, Teachers College at Columbia University, George Peabody College for Teachers, University of Chicago, University of Texas, Ohio State University, University of Oregon, and Stanford University.

Defense Against Recession: Policy for Greater Economic Stability. New York 22: Committee for Economic Development, 444 Madison Ave. 1954. 64 pp. This is one of a series issued by the CED Research and Policy Committee dealing with the problem of achieving greater economic stability. Contains recommended steps which may be of help in warding off a recession.

Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. 1954. 48 pp. Contains a summary of statistical (6 charts and 24 tables) and financial information for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1953.

Do You Ask These Questions about France? Washington 5, D. C.: France Actuelle, 221 Southern Building. 1954. 16 pp. Answers to five frequently asked questions about France.

DULLES, J. F. *The Challenge to Freedom*. Washington 25, D. C.: Dept. of State. 1954. 8 pp. Free. Text of a speech given in Williamsburg, Virginia, at the Annual Commemoration of the Virginia Resolution for American Independence and the Virginia Bill of Rights. Also available from same source is *The Issues at Geneva* (12 pp.) by Secretary Dulles.

DUPONT, E. F. *A Different Look at Safety*. Wilmington, Delaware: E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Co., Public Relations Dept. 1954. 12 pp. Free. The director of the Employee Relations Department shows how safety is important in terms of lost time through accidents. He states that two thirds of all industrial injuries occur in businesses with fewer than 100 workers.

Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1951-1952. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1953. 60c. The latest in a series of reports listing the earned degrees conferred by public and private colleges and universities in the United States during the year ending in June, 1952. Prepared from information supplied by 1,306 higher institutions, this survey shows the number of different degrees conferred at all levels in more than 70 major fields of study.

East-West Trade Trends. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1954. 108 pp. This fourth report to Congress on the Mutual Defense Assistance Control Act of 1951 (the Bottle Act) deals largely with an examination of what the Soviet Union has been doing in its trade relations with the free world.

EBER, MANUEL. *Employment Outlook in Banking Occupations*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1954. 42 pp. 30c. Discusses banking functions, training and qualifications, earnings and working conditions, and employment trends and outlook.

Economic Education. New York 22: Joint Council on Economic Education, 444 Madison Ave. 1954. 24 pp. Describes a workshop program in New Jersey at which 36 teachers were in attendance from July 20 to August 7, 1953, at Rutgers University.

The Economic Growth of Twenty Republics. New York 27: International Documents Service, Columbia Univ. Press, 2960 Broadway. 1954. 32 pp. 15c. Discusses the work of the Economic Commission for Latin America.

Education an Investment in People. Washington 6, D. C.: U. S. Chamber of Commerce. 1954. 48 pp. \$1. This is a graphical presentation of a study by the U. S. Chamber of Commerce to provide facts necessary to demonstrate this country's growing dependence upon her schools and colleges and to stimulate local and state action to provide better schools for coming generations. The report points up many of the problems with which we are faced today if we are to fill America's need for a well-educated reserve of young persons.

Educational Policies Commission. *Strengthening Community Life: Schools Can Help.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W. 1954. 48 pp. 35c. A statement on the role of the school in relation to its environing community as prepared by the Commission.

Employing the Physically Handicapped. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of Labor. 1953. 74 pp. A compilation of employment and rehabilitation material for use of students, writers, educators, and leaders of industry, business, agriculture, the professions, and labor.

Entering Frank Ashley Day Junior High School. Newton, Mass.: F. A. Day Junior High School Parent-Teacher Association. 1954. 42 pp. A booklet prepared by parents, pupils, and teachers of the F. A. Day Junior High School to help parents and pupils of the elementary schools who are about to enter the seventh grade of the F. A. Day Junior High School. This exceptionally unique booklet contains a study of the junior high-school movement in general together with a history of the F. A. Day Junior High School. Following this are sections on curriculum guidance and finally a section on "Big Business of Boys and Girls" dealing with such prevalent problems as social acceptability, hours to keep, money to spend, clothes to wear, and recreational activities.

Fighting Our Insect Enemies. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1954. 24 pp. 15c. This year the American profession of entomology commemorates its first 100 years of achievement in combating these ceaseless tides of the insect world. The 4,500 scientists, teachers, and commercially employed men and women in this profession are proud of the progress that has been made. This booklet tells about some of the achievements that have been made in our fight against insects during the past 100 years.

Foreign Languages. Princeton, New Jersey: College Entrance Examination Board, c/o Educational Testing Service, P. O. Box 192 (or P. O. Box 9896, Los Felix Station, Los Angeles 27, California). 1954. 32 pp. 50c. A description of the College Board Tests in French, German, Latin, and Spanish.

FORNWÄLT, R. J. *Job Getting Aids.* New York 3: Big Brother Movement, 33 Union Square West. 1954 (July). 4 pp. (Mimeo) 25c. An annotated list of 42 pamphlets and books on the subject.

Foundation Values of American Life. Cincinnati: Office of Superintendent of Schools. 1954. 39 pp. The superintendent's annual report for the school year 1952-53. Pictorial.

Four Futures. Washington 25, D. C.: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense. 1954. 16 pp. Free. Describes opportunities offered to women interested in the medical field.

Future Teachers of America Handbook. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1954. 132 pp. \$1. A handbook for the use of chapters and state associations of the FTA, an organization sponsored by the NEA. Also available is a *Manual for FTA Clubs in High Schools* (36 pp. \$1) which is intended for use in developing FTA clubs.

GAUMNITZ, W. H., and RICE, M. C. *Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1954. 90 pp. 35c. This is chapter 5 of the Biennial Survey of Education and is the most recent of a series of periodic reports by the U. S. Office of Education on the statistics of public high schools. Data are for the school year 1951-52. Included are: number of schools, enrollment, number on school staffs, size of schools, the 11-year school system, ungraded secondary schools, reorganization, rural-urban distribution, some significant indices, summary highlights, rapid finder, and appendix.

GORES, H. B. *Home, School, Community*. Newton, Mass.: Supt. of Schools, 1954. 92 pp. The 114th annual report by the Newton School Committee.

GREENWALT, C. H. *Business Laws and Ethics*. Wilmington, Delaware: E. I. Du Pont De Nemours and Co., Public Relations Dept. 1954. 8 pp. An address by the president of the company at the dedication of the Haskell Laboratory for Toxicology and Industrial Medicine.

HAUGH, O. M., editor. *Bulletin of Education*. Lawrence: Dean, School of Education, Univ. of Kansas. 1954 (May). 96 pp. Contains seven articles of which one reports on a study of the superintendency and board of education, one on the improvements of study skills, one on the use of occupational and environmental information, two present a two-way analysis of relativism, and one describes an experimental evaluation of a small high-school counseling program and the final one on the plate of spelling in the total school program.

Helicopters. Washington 6, D. C.: NAEC Materials of Instruction Committee, 1115 17th St., N. W. 1954. 32 pp. (8½" x 11") 50c. Describes some of the unique services of this aircraft to the community. An illustrated story of interest to pupils from eight to sixteen years of age.

HERLIHY, L. B. *Current Expenditures per Pupil in Public School Systems: Small and Medium-Sized Cities, 1952-53*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1954. 36 pp. 25c. Contains data on current expenditures per pupil in 240 cities with populations between 2,500 and 25,000.

How Can We Advertise School Needs? New York 36: National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 West 45th St. 1954. 44 pp. Single copy, free. Tells how interested persons can help use the national Better Schools advertising campaign to advertise public school needs in their own community. Through the Better Schools campaign, newspapers, radio and TV house magazines, consumer magazines, outdoor and carcard advertising firms, and other communications media are sent free advertising material pointing up the needs and accomplishments of the public schools. The Advertising Council handles the campaign for the Commission. This campaign can be even more effective if it is localized, brought down to the local level in terms of statistics used, conditions cited, and ways in which help can be given by the citizen. This booklet has been published with this thought in mind. All persons interested in school improvement should read the booklet to learn how they can take advantage of the free, professionally prepared Better Schools materials.

How To Find Out About the United Nations. New York 27: International Document Service, Columbia Univ. Press, 2960 Broadway. 1954. 70 pp. 15c. Facts about the UN and materials available. Also available are: *Decisions and Prospects* (1954. 52 pp. 15c) a record of action taken by the General Assembly during the first part of its eighth session; *United Nations Periodicals* (1954. 16 pp. Free) a description of many that are available, together with prices; *The United Nations, the First Eight Years* (1953. 16 pp. Free) what it is and is not, what it does, and what it costs; and *A Year of Tangible Results* (1954. 20 pp. 15c) a review of the work of the specialized agencies and children's fund during 1953.

How To Organize and Run a School Camera Club. New York 17: *Photography*, 366 Madison Ave. 1954. 28 pp. This pamphlet has been prepared by the editors of *Photography* magazine. Items covered are organization, basic equipment for the darkroom, darkroom budget, ideal layouts for the darkroom, the camera, the club bulletin, suggested activities and programs, and program material sources.

HURD, P. De H. *Science Facilities for the Modern High School*. Stanford: Stanford Univ. Press. 1954. 60 pp. Discusses procedures that should be followed in order to assure that the physical properties of the science classrooms appearing on the building plans of the architect will be functional when put in use. Also contains a number of science classrooms' lay-outs.

If We Fail the Schools. Washington 6, D. C.: Congress of Industrial Organizations, 718 Jackson Place, N. W. 1954. 8 pp. 15c. The article discusses teacher and building shortages, shows results of educational inequalities, and raises the question of why something isn't being done about these school problems.

The Jet Air Age and Your U. S. Air Force. Washington 25, D. C.: Dept. of the Air Force. 1954. 60 pp. Tells something of the history of the air force, its necessity, its various types of services, training, and opportunity. Pictorial.

Job Guide for Medical Occupations. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security. 1954. 24 pp. Free. Designed to help counselors in discussing job opportunities in the health and medical occupations. It includes information on the duties and importance, entrance requirements and training, job opportunities, and sources of further information.

Job Guide for Young Workers. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security. 1954. 46 pp. 30c. This bulletin contains descriptions of 73 entry occupations which are frequently held by young people after completion of their high-school education. Some of the occupations surveyed in the *Guide* may be regarded by young workers as providing temporary opportunities only—as a stepping stone to better jobs; others may be considered as affording permanent employment. For each occupation covered, information is provided on the duties, qualifications for the job, characteristics of the job, opportunities for employment and advancement, and methods of entry. The introduction to the *Guide* also contains information of a general nature and includes selected references useful to young job seekers. We believe it will be a valuable tool for counselors and guidance workers and for young people about to enter the labor market. Additional copies may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

JOHNSON, E. J., and ELAM, W. N. *Guiding High-School Students of Vocational Agriculture in Developing Farming Programs.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1954. 88 pp. 30c. Designed to assist instructors of vocational agriculture in guiding high-school students of vocational agriculture in planning and developing individual farming programs.

JOHNSTON, J. A. *Percentage Conversion Tables.* New York 11: College Entrance Book Co., 104 Fifth Ave. 1953. 16 pp. 1-9 copies, 25c each; 10 or more copies, 20c each. This is a book of percentage tables that enables one to see at a glance that 27 right out of 35 is a score of 77%; 23 out of 35 is 66%; 82 out of 88 is 93%; etc. The tables cover all numbers from 6 to 100. With this booklet, one can quickly and accurately mark papers in percentages, regardless of the number of questions or the total point value of the test. All one has to do is open the booklet to the proper table and read off the percentages.

JOINT COMMITTEE OF THE NEA AND THE AMERICAN TEACHERS ASSOCIATION. *Legal Status of Segregated Schools.* (32 pp.) Part I and *Progress of the Education of Negroes, 1870-1950.* (48 pp.) Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1954 (January). Part I summarizes statutes, court decisions, and pending cases; Part II presents statistical data.

KRAMER, M. D. *Def't Driving.* Dearborn, Michigan: Ford Motor Co. 1952. 48 pp. This booklet developed in the interest of better motoring and greater safety on our highways is intended for new drivers and for use in high-school courses in driver education. Also available are: *The Truth About Carbon Monoxide* (8 pp.) and *How Long Is a Rod?* (8 pp.) discussing the origin of our standards of lengths.

LANDIS, P. H. *Teenage Adjustments in Large and Small Families.* Pullman: State College of Washington. 1954 (April). 28 pp. A research study which indicates that rather striking differences in family patterns by size of families exist and that these differences are reflected in the attitudes, family experience, achievements, and problems of teenagers in the senior year of high

school and even carry over into college. Conclusions, based on a high-school and a college sample, suggest that this field of study merits further attention of sociologists.

LAYTON, E. N. *General Education*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1954. 28 pp. 15c. An annotated bibliography of 140 articles and materials dealing with general education in higher education.

Let's Go to Press. Washington 6, D. C.: National School Public Relations Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W. 1954. 48 pp. (8½" x 11") \$1. An illustrated guide to better school news reporting, discussing the newspaper reporter and editor, spotting school news, good newswriting, and systems that work.

LONSDALE, B. J., and DOLDER, E. F., compilers. *Conservation—Concern for Tomorrow*. Sacramento 14: California State Dept. of Education. 1954. 181 pp. The California State Department of Education is deeply interested in the development of conservation education in the schools of the state. Over a period of years it has published bulletins, held regional conferences, provided consultative services, carried on other activities in an effort to improve conservation education programs, and has co-operated with other departments of Federal and state government and organizations and agencies whose programs are concerned with the conservation of natural resources. This new publication is the result of a wide experience in collecting and disseminating conservation education. It is intended as a resource to teachers. It provides information about the natural resources of the state and suggestions for the improvement of conservation education programs.

MANN, G. C. *Handbook on Adult Education in California*, revised. Sacramento: California State Dept. of Public Instruction. 1954. 64 pp. Contains present California state laws, and regulations and policies of the state department of education relating to adult education.

Manpower Resources in Mathematics. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1954. 28 pp. 20c. A report on the professional characteristics, employment, and earnings of mathematicians in the United States has been issued by the National Science Foundation.

The Many Uses for the du Pont Products. Wilmington, Delaware: E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Co. 1954. 16 pp. Free. Describes use of some of du Pont's 1,200 different products.

MELCHER, GEORGE. *An Evaluation of the Northeast Accelerated Junior College Experiment with Superior Students in Kansas City*. Kansas City, Missouri: Board of Education. 1953. 54 pp. A summary of the reactions of 445 graduates of the Kansas City Junior College 12 to 18 years after graduation. This is an experiment begun in 1929 in which the last two years of high school and the first two years of college were combined into a three-year course by elimination of overlappings and duplication of subject matter and by acceleration of the rate of progress.

MEYER, PETER. *Under the Soviet Heel*. New York 16: The American Jewish Committee, 386 Fourth Ave. 1953. 48 pp. 10c. Tells of the destruction of Jewish life in eastern Europe. Also available from the same source are: *The Tables Are Turning* (12 pp., 5c each), *New Neighbors in Old Neighborhoods* (16 pp., 7c each), and *The Liberal Arts in Contemporary American Society* (12 pp., 5c each).

MILLER, H. H. *Needed: A Civilian Reserve*. Washington 9, D. C.: National Planning Association, 1606 New Hampshire Ave., N. W. 1954. 64 pp. \$1. Urges immediate recruitment of a civilian reserve of qualified executives and specialists, trained and willing to move promptly into government service if a crisis should call for creation or expansion of emergency war agencies.

Money Management for Young Moderns. Chicago 11: Consumer Education Department, Household Finance Corporation, 919 N. Michigan Ave. 1954. 24 pp. 10c. Suggests a way for teenagers to learn the skill of handling money wisely.

Motion Pictures. Dearborn, Michigan: Film Library, Ford Motor Co., 16400 Michigan Ave. 1954. 64 pp. Free. This is a catalog of 16mm. sound films available for rental, free loan, or for purchase. They have been prepared by the Ford Motor Company for use by general audiences, civic clubs, youth and educational groups, schools, and churches. The catalog lists 10 films on the automobile industry, 6 on Americans at home, 6 on vacation places, and 6 on educational subjects—a total of 28 films. Two pages are devoted to each film, with one being a full-page picture from the film and the other a description of the subject covered, the number of minutes for showing, and the weight of the film. Requests for purchase of any of these films should be sent to the Dearborn Film Library, but requests for rental films should be referred to the nearest Ford, Lincoln-Mercury, or Ford tractor dealer who will relay the request to the nearest Ford Film Library. A booklet entitled *The Human Bridge* (88 pp.) is available. This booklet is composed of photographs taken from a 16mm. color film of the same title.

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS. *Working with Youth through the High-School PTA.* Chicago 11: National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 700 North Rush St. 1954. 64 pp. 40c. Prepared for the use of PTA leaders in junior, senior, and four-year high schools; high-school service chairmen of PTA's in Illinois schools and in combined elementary and secondary schools; and parents and teachers who may wish to organize a PTA in their high school. Also available from the same source is a colored folder (11" x 17") entitled the 1954 Findings.

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS. *Parent-Teacher Manual.* Chicago 11: National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 700 North Rush Street. 1953. 283 pp. This manual is published for the use of the officers and chairmen of parent-teacher associations in membership with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. The national organization has a membership of over 8 million men and women. It contains information essential to the proper organization and conduct of local congress units as well as of PTA workshops, conferences, institutes, and schools of instruction. Part I is devoted to the structure of the parent-teacher organization; Part II, to the scope of organizational activity; Part III, to policies and guiding principles; Part IV, to planning the program; Part V, to the forming of committees; and Part VI, to a suggested calendar, suggestions for an installation ceremony, types of books that can be helpful as procedure books, discussion of American Education Week, and an index.

Other booklets available from the National Congress of Parents and Teachers are: *Councils of Parent-Teacher Associations* (1950. 48 pp. Describes what a parent-teacher council is and outlines procedures in organizing a council, giving suggestions on developing a constitution and bylaws and what the council can do.) *Organizing a PTA* (1954. 48 pp. Outlines procedures in organizing and gives a suggested constitution and bylaws.) *Planning the Program* (24 pp.), *Policies and Guiding Principles* (24 pp.).

Nebraska Education. Lincoln: Supt. of Public Instruction. 1954. 100 pp. Contains statistical data on Nebraska schools; also discusses various phases of administration, supervision, and curriculum development. The superintendent's annual report for the school year 1952-53.

NIELSEN, A. C. *Food Store Marketing, 1953.* Chicago: A. C. Nielsen Co., 2101 Howard Street. 1954. 64 pp. An address by the president of the company in which he discusses marketing procedures.

OTTIS, A. S. *Ottis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Tests.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co. 1953. Test Booklet, Alpha form, 8 pp.; test booklet, Beta and Gamma forms, each 6 pp.; manual of directions for the Alpha form, 15 pp.; manual of directions for Beta and Gamma tests, 8 pp. These are new editions of the quick-scoring series; Alpha for grades one to four, Beta for grades five to nine, and Gamma for high school and college. A new *Manual of Directions* for each test gives up-to-date normative data, complete description of the series, directions for administering and scoring, reliability, validity data, and suggestions for application

of results. The Beta and Gamma tests are available in six forms EM and FM. Time limit for each are: Alpha, 25 minutes; Beta, 30 minutes; and Gamma, 30 minutes. The tests are self-administering, requiring the teacher only to pass out the booklets, allow the pupils to study the first page with a minimum of direction, then let them go ahead and take the test. Time limits are administratively feasible. There are no separate time limits for different parts of the tests; thus errors due to incorrect timing are held to a minimum.

PARKER, W. R. *The National Interest and Foreign Languages*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1954 (April). 148 pp. 45c. A discussion guide and work paper for citizen consultations initiated by the U. S. National Commission for UNESCO, Department of State. Shows trends in teaching foreign languages in the elementary, secondary, undergraduate, and graduate college levels.

PENNELL, ELLEN. *Women on TV*. Minneapolis 15: Burgess Publishing Co., 426 S. Sixth St. 1954. 213 pp. \$3.50. This manual is designed to answer, at least in part, the numerous queries about television from women whether viewers, program producers, or eager students planning a career. Where it is written primarily for those interested in educational TV, it also considers those who anticipate working in the commercial studio. For the educator and the pupil still in the anticipation stage of TV, there are suggestions on program planning, script writing, visuals, costumes, and set designing. There is information on the demonstration part of TV, on TV's use in the classroom, and on "How do I get on TV." It includes brief background sketches of leading home economics TV workers.

Play Safe. New York 17: Camp Fire Girls, 16 East 48th Street. 1954. 12 pp. Free. This is the third booklet on which the Automotive Safety Foundation has co-operated with the Camp Fire Girls. It contains suggested fun activities appropriate to the ages and interests of our members (girls from 7-18), with solid safety awareness and training as a palatable by-product.

POIROT, P. L. *Social Security*. Irvington-on-Hudson, New York: The Foundation for Economic Education. 1954. 29 pp. Discusses the future of Social Security and also raises questions as to sources of money to pay those over 65 when by 1970 there will probably be one over 65 to every 5 contributing wage earner.

The President's Committee on Employment of the Physically Handicapped. Washington 25, D. C.: Dept. of Labor. 1954. 43 pp. Minutes of the spring meeting; includes a speech by Vice President Nixon.

The Printing Industry Offers You a Career. Washington 5, D. C.: Education Council of the Graphic Arts Industry, 719 15th St., N. W. 1954. 22 pp. (8½" x 11") To interest young people to choose the graphic arts industry as their career and to help in assuring a continuous supply of qualified manpower for our industry, a new recruitment brochure has been published and is now being distributed by the Education Council of the Graphic Arts Industry. Produced in co-operation with Printing Industry of Cleveland, the recruitment brochure is printed in two colors, is well illustrated, and well written in language addressed specifically to junior and senior high-school students.

Protecting the Public Health. Wilmington, Delaware: E. I. duPont De Nemours and Co. 1954. 32 pp. (9" x 12") Free. Describes what one company is doing with chemicals in the way of public health and its protection. Illustrated.

Psychological First Aid in Community Disasters. Washington 6, D. C.: American Psychiatric Association, 1785 Massachusetts Ave., N. W. 1954. 32 pp. 35c. Describes the common reactions to unusual emotional stress, and sets forth the fundamental principles of how to deal with them. These principles, it is pointed out, are applicable to any community disaster. The manual gives essential information and guidance for workers in floods, fires, tornadoes, and other natural catastrophes, as well as for civil defense against possible enemy action.

Public Education in the Outlying Areas. Washington 6, D. C.: Research Division, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W. 1954 (May). 14 pp. (Mimeo) 10c. A supplement to *Educational Differences Among the States*.

The Public Health Nurse. Boston 15: Simmons College, 300 Fenway. 1954. 4 pp. Free. One of a series of 27 guidance bulletins of which 17 are out of print but available in many libraries, both school and public.

PUNER, H. W. *Children in Court.* New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th St. 1954. 32 pp. 25c. About 385,000 children wind up in the nation's Children's Courts each year, but with a few exceptions, most of these courts do a poor job of helping children in trouble, the Public Affairs Committee reported in this pamphlet. The report deals with a brief history of the Children's Courts throughout the country and shows the major weaknesses in most of them. It recommends, almost without exception, vastly increased probation and psychiatric services for every Children's Court.

The Railroad Story. Washington 6, D. C.: Association of American Railroads, Transportation Building. 1954. 32 pp. Free. The booklet emphasizes, in words and pictures, the scientific development of American railroads. It answers the thousands of questions raised annually by junior and senior high-school pupils about our railroads. It contains authentic and up-to-date information. Other materials available include *Rails Across America* (16 pp., comic's style in color accompanied by a *Teacher's Guide*) and *Highlights of American Railroad History* (28 pp., events and incidents in the history of railroads). Another valuable aid from the Association of American Railroads is a *Teacher's Kit on Railroad Transportation*. The Kit is an envelope containing the following materials: *Teacher's Manual, Suggested Study Outlines and Source Material* (Vol. 1, sixth edition. 1954. 56 pp.); *A Study of Railway Transportation for Teachers* (Vol. 2, sixth edition. 1954. 70 pp.); and 57 pictures (8½" x 11").

Recreation World, Buyers' Guide. New York 1: Recreation World Publishing Co., 1170 Broadway. 1953. 48 pp. \$1.75. This 1953 edition classifies materials as to type and availability. Also available is the magazine *Recreation World* on a subscription basis of \$3 per year. The subscriber receives not only the magazine but also the *Recreational Review-Leader*.

A Report on an Experiment in Community Education. New York: Port of New York Authority. 1954. 18 pp. (Mimeo.) A description of a project conducted in the Morris County high schools in which the Morris County Secondary-School Principals' Association and the New York Port Authority co-operated. It was an experiment in economic geography in which the nature of the economic activity in the port district was taught to the high-school pupil through devices of lecture and field trip. The program is to be repeated year after year.

RESEARCH DIVISION. *Educational Differences Among the States.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W. 1954 (March). 32 pp. 25c. United States Armed Forces are losing a sixth of the nation's potential fighting power due to inadequate schooling, according to this report on a special survey of educational differences among the states. "Differences in educational opportunity among the states result in an unequal distribution of the wartime manpower burdens among the states," the NEA survey indicates. "Of those found to be educationally deficient during the first year of the Korean War—1.3 per cent in Minnesota to 56 per cent in South Carolina—large proportions came from some of the states and relatively few from other states." The main purpose of the study, according to NEA officials, is to point out the wide range in ability of the states to maintain and operate school systems.

———. *High Spots in State School Legislation Enacted in 1953.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W. 1954 (March). 52 pp. (Mimeo.) Briefly summarizes the enactments of school legislation in 44 states during the calendar year 1953. A similar report is also available for the 1954 legislation passed by states.

_____. *The 1954 Teacher Supply and Demand Report*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1954 (March). 24 pp. 50c. Report of the seventh annual National Teacher Supply and Demand Study reprinted from the *Journal of Teacher Education*, March 1954.

_____. *Pupils' Day in Court*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1954 (February). 20 pp. Abstracts of 36 cases during the calendar year 1953 decided in courts of which 23 were concerned with pupil injuries.

_____. *The School Teachers' Day in Court*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1954 (March). 34 pp. (Mimeo.) Abstracts of 59 cases during the calendar year 1953 decided in courts of record in 53 opinions dealing with teacher personnel problems.

_____. *The Status of Driver Education in Public High Schools, 1952-53*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1954 (April). 52 pp. 50c. A summary of a survey made by the NEA Research Division for the 1953 conference on safety education.

The Retail Automobile Business. Detroit 2: General Motors Corporation, 3044 West Grand Boulevard. 1954. 23 pp. Free. A counselor's guide to help them advise young men concerning jobs and careers which are open in their local automotive retail sales and service business. The motion-slide film (mentioned in the brochure) is being made available to dealers to assist them in making personal presentations before groups of high-school pupils, primarily on "Career Days." This film, of course, is also available for showing by any counselor interested in this subject. Also available is a picture story booklet designed for distribution to high-school students to inform them of the opportunities in the retail automobile business in their communities. Another valuable pamphlet for pupil use is entitled *Can I Get the Job?* (36 pp.).

ROBBINS, A. A. *Word Study for Improved Reading*. New York 10: Globe Book Co., 175 Fifth Ave. 1954. 110 pp. \$1. The purposes of this workbook are remedial in nature. It is composed of 50 lessons with each one presenting the purpose of the lesson, exercises to perform, and things to do for practice.

ROPER, ELMO. *American Attitudes on World Organization*. Boston 8: Beacon Press, 25 Beacon St. 1954. 38 pp. 35c. An exposition of the results of a national survey with interpretations of the findings. Personal interviews by trained interviewers were made of 3,502 people as to their attitude.

RUEBEL, R. F. *Wyoming Teachers' Salary Study*. Laramie: Bureau of Educational Research and Service, College of Education, Univ. of Wyoming. 1954. 24 pp. 25c. Presents data for the school year 1953-54.

RUML, BEARDSLEY. *Financing the Public Schools*. New York: National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 W. 45th St. 1954. 7 pp. He points up the necessity for Federal aid without Federal control.

RUSSELL, D. H. *The Dimensions of Children's Meaning Vocabulary in Grades Four Through Twelve*. Los Angeles: Univ. of California. 1954. 100 pp. \$1.25. This study is concerned with the dimensions of children's meaning vocabularies in the fourth through the twelfth grades. It investigates the breadth of their vocabularies in terms of wide-range sampling from science, social studies, mathematics, and hobbies and recreations, and also in terms of the number of meanings associated with some words that have multiple meanings. It explores the depth of their vocabularies by going beyond the superficial recognition of a synonym to some measure of how much the child understands about certain words. Finally, it attempts some study of the height of vocabularies, not in terms of total size, but in terms of development from year to year for these nine years. Indirectly it studies other dimensions of meanings, such as from vague to clear, from concrete to abstract, and from isolated to interrelated. In studying these dimensions it attempts to correlate previous research on vocabulary, which has appeared mainly in educational and child-development literature, and on concept development, which has appeared chiefly in psychological literature. Thus it attempts more specific analysis of vocabulary growth than is found in most previous investigations.

Safety Education Digest (Traffic Safety). New York 3: Center for Safety Education, Division of General Education, New York Univ. 1954 (Spring). 56 pp. A series of articles dealing with conferences, tests, training devices, and statistics and their aid to traffic safety.

SAILER, H. C. *Toward Better Newspaper Reading*. Newark, New Jersey: The Newark News. 1954. 12 pp. Free. An outline for a newspaper unit in high-school English for grades nine through twelve, prepared by a teacher in the Orange High School, Orange, New Jersey.

Segregation and the Schools. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th St. 1954. 28 pp. 25c. Summarizes the Ashmore Report which is published jointly by the Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th St., New York, New York, and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. Reviewed elsewhere in this month's "Book Column."

SLOCUM, W. L. *Occupational Planning by Undergraduates at the State College*. Pullman: State College of Washington, Institute of Agricultural Sciences. 1954. 40 pp. Contains information on some of the factors which influence college men and women in their occupational choice discussions, based on a study of 403 first-semester students in the State College of Washington during the academic year 1952-53.

SOLOMON, BEN. *Little League—Menace or Blessing*. Putnam Valley, New York: Youth Service, Inc. 1954. 24 pp. 50c. The author presents the *pros and cons* of this controversial issue in baseball for youth ages 9 to 12 years.

_____. *Quotes for Youth Leaders*. Putnam Valley, New York: Youth Service. 1954. 64 pp. \$1. Contains over 300 interesting, pithy, dramatic, and pointed short statements for use of youth leaders on radio and TV broadcasts, speeches, magazines, and reports.

Statistics of City School Systems, 1949-50. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1953. 85 pp. 30c. A detailed statistical study of public school systems in cities of 2,500 or more population, covering such points as enrollments, attendance, teacher-pupil ratios, typical staffing plans; sources of school revenue, expenditures, indebtedness of the schools; and types and extent of school properties.

STEWART, R. C. *An Evaluation of the Driver Education Program in the State of Delaware in Terms of the Performance Records of the Participants in This Program*. Dover: Delaware State Dept. of Public Instruction. 1954. 54 pp. A study of high-school students who successfully completed the driver education course offered in Delaware public schools. It covers a maximum period of five years immediately following graduation from the driver education program.

STONE, C. L. *Church Participation and Social Adjustment of High-School and College Youth*. Pullman: State College of Washington. 1954 (May). 32 pp. This study attempts to evaluate the influence of church participation on social adjustment of individuals as reflected in the attitudes and behavior patterns of selected high-school and college students. The data support the major hypothesis of the study that young people who participate regularly in church activities will have fewer problems of adjustment in their homes, in their relationship with their peers, and in school situations than do those who take little or no part in church activities.

STONE, K. H. *Choosing the President of the USA*. New York 16: Carrie Chapman Catt Memorial Fund, 461 Fourth Ave. 1954. 44 pp. 25c. This handy primer on the key act in the democratic process is the latest in a series of booklets published by the Fund to increase citizen understanding of basic governmental principles. The caucus-convention method of selecting candidates, used by a majority of states, and presidential preference primaries are described and their relative advantages evaluated. Suggestions, too, that have been made for Federal control of the nominating process, and possibly a national primary law for all states, are discussed. The pamphlet gives the layman a behind-the-scenes look at national conventions, and suggests improvements that have been considered for the convention system as to size, conduct, and program.

Straight from the Shoulder. Washington 25, D. C.: Dept. of the Air Force. 1954. 12 pp. A message from the U. S. Air Force to high-school pupils encouraging them to stay in school.

Suggested Standards for Automotive Service Instruction in Public Schools. Dearborn, Michigan: Ford Motor Co. 1951. 72 pp. (8½" x 11"). This booklet was prepared by the Automotive Industry-Vocational Education Conference for the purpose of recommending national standards as a means to raise the general level of automotive mechanics instruction in the public schools of the country. In addition to a preface and an appendix, section titles are: Student Selection, Opportunities in Automobile Service Industry, The Automotive Curriculum, Supplies and Equipment, Shop Rooms and Buildings, The Five-Year Teacher Training Program, and Summer Institutes.

Supplement to California School Accounting Journal. Sacramento: California State Dept. of Education. 1954 (April). 54 pp. Deals with accounting and fiscal matters relating to school.

Survey of Graphic Arts Education in Schools and Colleges in the U. S. Washington 5, D. C.: Education Council of the Graphic Arts Industry, 719 15th St., N. W. 1954. 12 pp. This report of 1,432 schools ranging from elementary grades through trade schools and technical institutes and colleges is a survey of graphic arts educational and training programs in the nation's school system. It also contains a directory of graphic arts schools and teachers by state and city and a partial list of graphic arts textbooks used in these schools.

TAYLOR, J. L., and WOOFER, JAMES. *Good and Bad School Plants.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1954. 84 pp. 50c. A picture brochure presenting photographs of good and bad school plants and facilities in use in the United States in 1951-52. The pictures were furnished by states participating in the nationwide School Facilities Survey.

The Teacher Looks at Supervision. Plainfield: New Jersey Secondary School Teachers' Association, Lester D. Beers, Treasurer, 1035 Kenyon Ave. 1954. 80 pp. \$1. This, the association's 1954 yearbook, discusses the place of supervision and the role of the supervisor in secondary education. It reports and deals with some of the most interesting and outstanding examples of supervisory practices being carried on in New Jersey secondary schools.

Toward Improved Preparation of Administrators for Education in the Public Schools. Albany 1: CDPSSA Administrative Center, New York State Education Department. 1954 (April). 32 pp. \$1. A co-operative project dealing with the question of what kind of recruitment, selection, preparation program, and in-service development are most likely to produce a good school administrator.

The Training of an Air Force Pilot. Washington 25, D. C.: Dept. of the Air Force. 1954. 24 pp. Describes the training program given the air force cadet.

The Training of an Aircraft Observer. Washington 25, D. C.: Dept. of the Air Force. 1954. 24 pp. Discusses the types of work done by the observer and the kind and amount of training given to him.

TRIPP, B. M. H. *UNESCO in Perspective.* New York 17: International Conciliation, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, United Nations Plaza at 46th St. 1954 (March). 64 pp. 25c. A discussion of UNESCO's establishment, objectives, and activities. This is one of the issues of the publication, *International Conciliation*, which is published six times a year (September, October, November, January, March, and May). Subscription rates are \$1 for one year, \$1.75 for two years, and \$2.50 for three years.

TRUMBULL, ROBERT. *India Since Independence.* New York 17: Foreign Policy Association, 345 East 46th St. 1954. 64 pp. 35c. In predicting India's political future, the author asserts that the political scene will be affected greatly by the economic progress of the country. Unless the mass of voters are conscious of improvement in economic status, he thinks the Congress party will face a serious threat at the polls in the next general election in 1956-57. Both the socialists and communists, he points out, are "on the upward path, while Congress is slipping" and must "stand on a record of redeemed promises by 1956."

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TYLER, E. N., and MORGAN, L. S. *Health Education at Work*. Chapel Hill: Dept. of Public Health Education, Univ. of North Carolina. 1954. 68 pp. 80c. Describes new developments and the functions of the health education.

UNESCO and Catholic Collaboration. Washington 17, D. C.: The Catholic Commission on Intellectual and Cultural Affairs, 620 Michigan Ave., N. E. 1953. 66 pp. A summary of the discussion at the eighth annual meeting of the Catholic Commission.

The Unit of Learning. Chicago: Dept. of Instruction and Guidance, Chicago Public Schools. 1954. 64 pp. Interesting features of this aid to classroom teachers are: the basing of units throughout on a curriculum council's activities of living; the principal's role in facilitating the teacher's use of unit procedure; and the relation of a classroom unit to the school's overall program.

University of Pennsylvania Placement Service Report of School and College Placement, 1952-1953. Philadelphia: Univ. of Pennsylvania, School of Education, Anne V. Blackburn, Administrative Assistant in Teacher Placement. 1954. 65 pp. (Mimeo) A report on requests for teachers and teacher placement (with table) as they pertain to the University of Pennsylvania's Teacher Placement Service.

WALKER, LuVERNE CRABTREE. *Teacher's Triptik*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Automobile Association, 1712 G St., N. W. 1954. 28 pp. \$1.25. A guide for elementary and junior high-school teachers in planning a full year's traffic safety education program. The author has "borrowed," from the famous AAA, Triptiks, familiar to millions of motorists, carefully to "route" the teacher through all the planning stages—faculty planning, enlisting the interest of children, encouraging parent participation, and arousing civic action. It contains specific suggestions for presenting each phase of the year's program to the pupils. The program outlined in the booklet utilizes AAA safety posters, school safety patrol material, and monthly lesson guides for teachers—already distributed for use in nearly half of all U. S. elementary and junior high classrooms—and AAA safety films. Non-availability of these materials does not preclude the use of the booklet, however. *Teacher's Triptik* replaces the popular *Guide for Teaching Traffic Safety, Grades 1 to 9*, which is now out of print. *Teacher's Triptik* is available from local automobile clubs affiliated with the AAA.

WELLS, IRENE, and BOTHWELL, JEAN. *Fun and Festival from India, Pakistan, and Ceylon*. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1954. 48 pp. 50c. Describes three nations and many of their festivals.

When—Your Home Is in the City. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Ave. 1954. 80 pp. 50c. A group of 18 stories by different authors dealing with life in the city.

WOLFF, GERTRUDE, editor. *Your School Libraries*. New York 36: Library Journal, 62 West 45th St. 1954. 36 pp. 25c. A series of articles on the school library including state departments of education and regional accrediting association standards for school libraries; also contains a number of bibliographies.

WOLGAMOT, I. H., and FINCHER, L. J. *Milk and Its Products*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1954. 36 pp. 25c. Discusses quantity used, nutritive value, market information, buying and caring for dairy products, and suggestions for using them.



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News Notes

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK—November 7-13, 1954, will mark the 34th annual observance of American Education Week. The general theme for the week is *Good Schools are YOUR Responsibility*. American Education Week has been observed annually since 1921, when it was established by joint action of the National Education Association and the American Legion. It has always been observed "for the purpose of informing the public of the accomplishments and needs of the public schools and to secure the co-operation and support of the public in meeting these needs." It is sponsored by the National Education Association, the American Legion, the U. S. Office of Education, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

The daily topics for the week are: Nov. 7, "Ideals to Live By"; Nov. 8, "Teachers for Tomorrow"; Nov. 9, "Investing in Good Schools"; Nov. 10, "Working Together for Good Schools"; Nov. 11, "Effective Citizenship"; Nov. 12, "Teaching the Fundamentals Today"; and Nov. 13, "How Good Are Your Schools?"

Numerous publicity helps can be obtained at nominal cost from the National Education Association. These materials are described in an order folder which lists the prices of the various items and the discounts on quantity orders. Many school systems like to supplement their own materials with such things as our color posters, movie trailers, radio recordings, and other helps.

The 64-page manual, *American Education Week Primer*, is a useful hand-book on planning, written especially for school administrators and planning committees. Since it deals with no one theme or set of daily topics, it can be used from year to year. A special brochure on the theme and daily topics for 1954 is particularly helpful to speakers and writers. The "packet" of basic materials can be used to advantage in each school building and by the chairmen of AEW committees and subcommittees.

Those wishing to obtain AEW helps should be sure to order them early. Address inquiries and orders to: American Education Week, National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

CHARTS FOR CLASSROOM USE—The Educational Services, Office of Public Relations, of the Ford Motor Company, 3000 Schaefer Road, Dearborn, Michigan, has a series of eight large charts available for classroom display. The largest chart (31" x 47"), in color, shows how a car is assembled. Another chart (22" x 30"), in color, shows the average stopping distances on dry level concrete surface of a car traveling at various speeds. The six other charts (each 16" x 21") are pictures illustrating the derivation of units of linear measure—the digit, the inch and foot, the palm, the cubit, the yard, and the rod.

AIDS FOR TEACHERS—The Metropolitan School Study Council, 525 West 120th Street, New York 17, New York, has recently published a mimeographed, annotated list of publications available through the council. This list contains approximately 80 listings including publications, periodicals, films, and filmstrips. This 10-page list is available free from the council. Included are such topics as: *The Slow Learner in the Average Classroom* (31 pp., 50c), *English and the Secondary-School Program* (9 pp., 15c), *Improving Instruction* (27 pp., 40c), *Foreign Language Education in the Secondary School* (8 pp., 15c), *Emerging Practices in School Administration* (90 pp., \$2), and *Emerging Design of Education* (18 pp., 30c).

SCHOOL CALENDAR—A calendar has been prepared as a public service by the Community Service Department of the American Jewish Committee, 386 Fourth Ave., New York 16, N. Y. The calendar, first produced six years ago, has grown in popularity with each succeeding

THE HANDBOOK OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS

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year. Its use has enabled schools of all kinds to avoid scheduling classes and entertainments on days on which there will be only a partial attendance because of holidays that affect one group or another. The calendar begins with September, 1954, and ends with August, 1955. Holidays are entered in red, and on the back of the one month the next month's holidays are described. The price of the calendar is ten cents each.

WHAT DO WE KNOW—about the characteristics of an effective teacher? Statements from 82,000 boys and girls in grades 1 to 12, collected from 1946 to 1950, were analyzed by Paul Witty in connection with a contest on "The Teacher Who Helped Me Most." The traits liked most by youngsters were (1) co-operation, democratic attitude; (2) consideration for the pupil; (3) patience; (4) interest in pupils' problems; and (5) teacher's proficiency in the subject. Five traits of teachers disliked by pupils were shown to be: (1) intolerance and bad temper; (2) inclination to show favoritism; (3) disinclination to show interest in a pupil and help him; (4) unreasonableness in demands on pupils; (5) tendency to be unfriendly. Read Dr. Witty's article in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 36, No. 4, pp. 193-208, for a further listing and fuller explanation of the data on pupil-teacher relationships from the pupils' viewpoint.

GUIDANCE MATERIAL—The Public Relations Department of the New York Life Insurance Company, 51 Madison Ave., New York 10, N. Y., has a number of career pamphlets available free for classroom use. Among these are:

- Should Your Child Be an Aeronautical Engineer?
- Should Your Child Be an Architect?
- Should Your Child Be a Doctor?
- Should Your Child Be a Farmer?
- Should Your Child Be a Lawyer?
- Should Your Child Be a Newspaperman?
- Should Your Child Be a Public Servant?
- Should Your Child Be a Teacher?

These pamphlets are 4" x 8½" and each contains 8 pages. The same materials are available as a large flat (22" x 14"). Each is interesting, illustrated, and contains such information as training requirements, natural attributes, type of work available, and opportunities for work and advancement. The flats make excellent material for posting on the bulletin board.

TWO HELPFUL GUIDEBOOKS—The National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools has issued a guidebook of 92 helpful pages on "How Can We Get Enough Good Teachers?" Another guidebook by NCCPS is on instructional materials. Indications are that it will likely be accorded an enthusiastic reception and perform notable service in an area of considerable controversy. Address of the Commission: The National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 West 45th Street, New York 36, New York.

READING ROOM FOR PARENTS—In Montgomery County, Maryland, the Board of Education maintains a reading room at Board headquarters where a copy of each textbook (now in use or recommended for use) is on file so that parents who are interested may become familiar with the books their children will use.

LENGTH OF CLASS PERIOD—The Commission on General Education of the Indiana State Board of Education has as one of its requirements to obtain a first class high-school commission the following standard: "The minimum length of a recitation period shall be 55 minutes."

HOW WE FOUGHT FOR OUR SCHOOL—"It came to me almost with a feeling of muscular contraction that we are the heirs of courage, and not of fear; and that the old values are worth fighting for; and that we have no cause to be afraid either of the nationally known crackpots or the local miniature Thors in Oak Glen; and that we are the guardians in our own day of the cause of human freedom—and that the place for me and my friends to prove

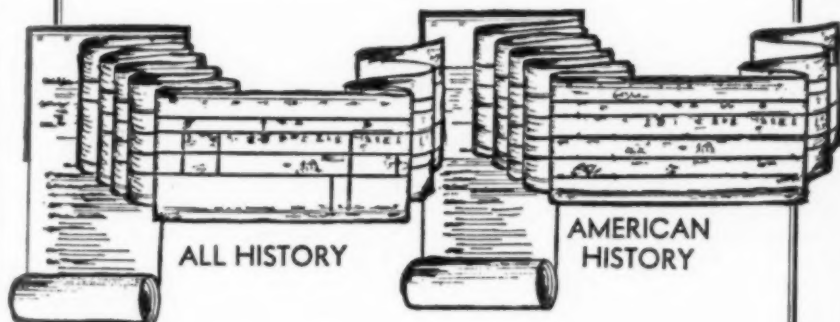
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it is the small suburban town of Oak Glen." So ends Edward Darling in his documentary novel, *How We Fought for Our Schools* (W. W. Norton and Co., Inc., New York, 1954, 255 pages. \$3).

The story of a concerted attack on the public schools in Oak Glen, a quiet suburb, is a story of what has happened in numerous places. Characters in the main roles are fictional, but evidence is drawn from authentic files. Mr. Darling has taken facts and quotes, added realistic characters, a theme, something of plot, and woven a readable, useful story of what can happen in a community—at the beginning serene and proud of its schools—when the ripples of discord are whipped by outside winds. Seeing the growing storm through the eyes of the teller, a young and inexperienced board member, the reader can feel stirred by such passages as the lines from page 176: "... I wondered if the rest of Oak Glen was as ignorant as I found myself to be. I wondered if the rest of the town had just taken things for granted on the assumption that George would do what was necessary to keep us going comfortably. . . . One thing I felt sure of, and I kept coming back to that. Unless we want a country based on *classes*—a wealthy, educated class and an ignorant, peasant class, or something of the sort—then we must, we must educate, to the extent of their individual abilities, all the children of all the people. If democracy is to live, no matter what it costs. If America means anything, it means equality of *opportunity*. I set my teeth in that, and hung on."—*Defense Bulletin*, April 1954.

ARE TEACHERS AFRAID?—The NEA studied 522 school systems and found that American teachers are finding it increasingly difficult to consider controversial issues. Dr. Robert M. Hutchins, in an article in *Look*, March 9, 1954, "Are Our Teachers Afraid To Teach," points out that all issues are controversial or they would not be issues. Under these circumstances, he asks, how can teachers "say anything worth saying about the world in which we live"?

Dr. Hutchins concludes, "You don't have to fire many teachers to intimidate them all. The entire teaching profession of the United States is intimidated." He takes note of the fact that Whittaker Chambers and Professor Sidney Hook of New York University say individuals still speak out. "What if they do?" Dr. Hutchins asks. "Their number is getting smaller every day, and it is a sad commentary that we have to congratulate ourselves that a few still speak when millions should feel free to do so. The spirit of the teaching profession is being crushed, and with it, our hopes of education.

"No country ever needed education more than ours does today," Dr. Hutchins ends.—*Defense Bulletin*, April 1954.

THE 1954 SCHOOL BUILDING FILMSTRIP—This 35mm. filmstrip produced from the 1954 school building architectural exhibit jointly sponsored by the American Association of School Administrators and the American Institute of Architects contains up-to-date information in 143 frames, showing floor plans, elevations, plot plans, structural detail, classroom layouts, libraries, cafeterias, multi-purpose rooms, outdoor play areas, etc. It pictures the latest developments in school building planning—campus-type elementary schools, indoor-outdoor classrooms, use of roof decks for ceilings, movable storage units in classrooms, special display areas, outside corridors, use of laminated wood arches, campus-type secondary schools, self-contained classrooms, new devices for use of natural light, gymnasium with exterior folding wall, control of light in large window areas, new interior finishes, and combined lunch and playrooms. It is a useful aid to superintendents, principals, school board members, graduate students, architects, and local community study groups. It is available from the American Association of School Administrators, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. The price for a copy of this *1954 School Building Filmstrip* is \$5. It is not available on a rental basis nor can it be sent on approval.

FULLBRIGHT AWARDS COMPETITION—The 1955-56 competition for U. S. government grants under the Fullbright Act opened in May. The closing date for the receipt of applications is November 1, 1954. Awards are offered in the following countries: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Burma, Ceylon, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, India, Italy, Japan,

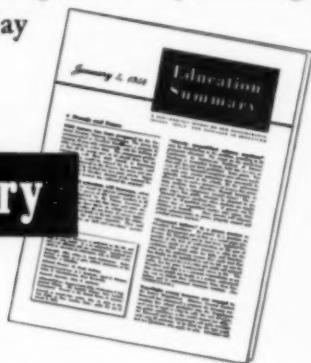


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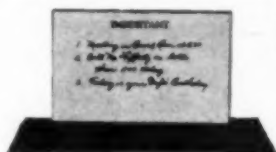


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Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Pakistan, Philippines, Sweden, Union of South Africa, and the United Kingdom. Application forms may be obtained from the Institute of International Education, 1 East 67th St., New York 21, N. Y.—*News Bulletin* of the Institute.

NEA RELEASES SPECIAL SURVEY ON EDUCATIONAL DIFFERENCES AMONG THE 48 STATES—A study, prepared by the Research Division and released by the Division of Legislation and Federal Relations of the National Education Association entitled *Educational Differences Among the States*, provides a source of up-to-date information about school needs. Some of the trends brought out in the study include: (1) Most states which have high percentages of illiterates are those which have large numbers of school-age children in proportion to the number of adults. They are also the states which pay teachers the lowest annual salaries, their teachers have the largest classes, and their *per capita* incomes are the lowest. (2) In terms of educational effort and per pupil expenditure, many states are able to spend large amounts on their schools even though this expenditure represents a very small percentage of average income payments. Thus, for West Virginia to support a \$150 per pupil program, it must use 2.84 per cent of its income, while Illinois in supporting a \$278 per child program must spend 1.92 per cent of its income. (3) Farming areas and small towns generally have a higher ratio of school-age children to wage-earning adults than do cities. In 1950 there were 333 school-age children per 1,000 wage-earning adults in urban areas; 492 in rural nonfarm areas; and 635, in rural farm areas. (4) Nationwide, the percentage of children, 5 through 17, not attending any school had increased since 1950—in 1951, it was 12.7 per cent; in 1952, 13.7 per cent; and in 1953, 13.2 per cent. In 1953 more than 4½ million children in this age group were not attending school.

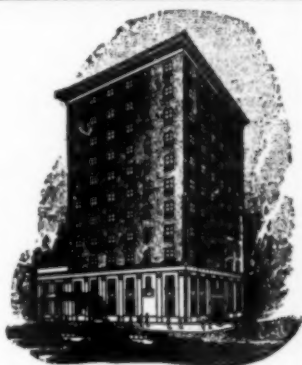
Copies of this publication may be secured for 50 cents from the National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C. "What we ask is a minimum standard below which no school would be allowed to sink," Dr. Carr emphasized, "a guarantee to every American child that he shall have at least a minimum acceptable educational opportunity, no matter where he happens to live. American public education is primarily a state and local enterprise—control over what is taught and most of the responsibility for financing the schools is in the hands of the state departments of education and local boards of education. Local communities, therefore, differ in the kinds of educational programs they want for their children. They also differ in their willingness and ability to support schools. . . . While the people of this nation do not want uniformity, they do want equality of educational opportunity."

TEACHER RECRUITMENT PLANS—San Diego, Calif., schools are launching a new recruitment-training program which may foreshadow similar projects elsewhere to lick the teacher shortage. The program is aimed at college graduates who hold non-teaching bachelor of arts degrees. Twenty-eight candidates, now being selected, will be enrolled in a special nine-week course at San Diego State College this summer. Starting in September, they will teach on a three-fourths time basis at the regular first year salary schedule and will work one-fourth time on college credits, taking special seminar courses. While on the job, trainees will be divided into groups of four and placed under direct supervision of an experienced teacher (who gets \$200 yearly in extra pay). After a second summer session, trainees will complete requirements for their credentials. School board and college each have budgeted an initial \$10,000 to finance the joint project.

* * *

To be certain that recruitment publications would be effective with their intended audience, the Florida Dept. of Education included high-school students on the editing committees. For educators and lay leaders, the department has prepared a 64-page manual on selective recruiting. Thomas D. Bailey, State Supt., Tallahassee, Fla., has samples.—*Trends in School Public Relations*, an NEA publication.

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RECENT BRITISH FILMS—The British Information Services, an agency of the British Government, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y., has a large number of 16mm. sound films available for classroom use. Among some of the more recently released ones are: *Operation Hurricane* (3 reels; sound; 27 minutes; rental, \$3.75; sale, \$75) A British-made atom bomb was exploded inside a ship off the island of Monte Bello on the Australian coast; *English Pageantry* (1 reel; 10 minutes; rental, \$2.50; sale, \$90) A presentation of the breathtaking splendor of English ceremonial pageantry; *Her People Rejoiced* (5 reels; 45 minutes; rental, \$6; sale, \$125) Tells how the Queen's subjects of all races and colors in all the five continents celebrated the event in their many lively and picturesque ways; *Bridge of Time* (2 reels; 16 minutes; rental, \$5; sale, \$135) A technicolor illustration of London and London Bridge, its atmosphere and traditions, its various modern customs and time-honored ceremonies; *The Dancing Fleece* (2 reels; 20 minutes; rental, \$5; sale, \$135) The woolen industry of Britain; *David* (4 reels; 38 minutes; black and white; rental, \$5; sale, \$100) "David" is a Welsh story reflecting the character of a nation in the life story of one man; *Plan for Coal* (2 reels; 20 minutes; black and white; rental, \$2.50; sale, \$55) Describes Britain's new plan to ensure the coal needed for her welfare; *Capital City* (1 reel; 10 minutes; rental, \$1.50; sale, \$32.50) A cinematic tour through the microcosm that is London—Capital City—where 10 million people, rich and poor, live and work within a radius of 20 miles.

AN EXTRA-CLASS PAY SCHEDULE—The Lima, Ohio, School Board has recently adapted a schedule of pay for teachers having extra-class activities. This schedule was first effective in 1954. This schedule provides extra pay for extra hours and for added responsibility and special skill. Teachers of physical education in afternoon schedules receive \$90 per year; teachers of visual education, \$45 in small elementary schools, and \$90 in large elementary schools; those in charge of athletics receive amounts ranging from \$135 to \$700 and a maximum of \$1,000 is paid; those in charge of special club activities are paid varying amounts ranging from \$45 to \$135 per year, with the largest amount, \$200, paid to a faculty manager of athletics.—*School Board Journal*, March 1954.

3 USEFUL FILMS—The Bailey Films, Inc., of Hollywood 28, Calif., has recently released a number of films that are useful to high-school teachers. Among these are:

Poster Making: Design and Technique. The subject is a ten-minute picturization of the steps employed in producing a poster for billboard display which will attract attention in the most favorable ways. Procedures are minutely detailed: poster layout, lettering, tracing, cutting, transfer, stenciling, and painting. The importance of correct techniques in the use of chisel-edge, stencil, and small brushes is cited; eye-catching rewards of visibility, color contrast, effective layout, bold lettering, measurement, and optical spacing are stressed. No. 5663 in the Bailey 1954 Catalog, this color film rents for \$4.50 for a three-day period or may be purchased for \$100.

How To Make Papier Mache Animals. This film opens with the showing of various animals created from newspaper and string. The steps for making the animals are shown, followed by a demonstration and explanation of the application of paper strips over the form, painting, decorating, and shellacking the animal. Different uses of the papier mache animals—for displays, mobiles, table decorations, carnivals, and toys—are reviewed; the

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strong colors used in designing and painting the animals and the variety of sizes, forms, and shapes of the finished products make for eye-appealing appreciation. Emphasis is placed upon creative expression, and the learner is challenged to use old newspapers in new, creative ways. The film rents for \$2.50 in black and white, and may be purchased for \$50 in black and white, \$112 in color.

Hawaii: USA. This film is a study of the history and heritage, natural beauty, romance, and commercial life of the United States territory which seems destined soon to become the forty-ninth state. It is a fascinating, factual recording of the living conditions of Hawaii's half million cosmopolitan citizens. The volcanic origin, a million years ago, of what Mark Twain called "the loveliest fleet of islands anchored in any ocean" is graphically depicted, as is the development of the present-day major industries: sugar, pineapple, cattle, and coffee raising. Colorful scenes show the raising and processing of sugar, pineapple, and coffee; and scenes on large ranches show roundups of cattle and their shipment from outside islands to Honolulu on the island of Oahu. Racial groups represented in Hawaii and their traditions as they form part of the everyday life of the territory are prominent in the film. No. 2672 in the Bailey 1954 Catalog, the 21-minute subject rents for \$4.50 and sells for \$90 in black and white; for \$7.50 and \$190 in color. For further information about any of these films write to: Bailey Films, Inc., 6109 De Longpre Ave., Hollywood 28, Calif.

AN AUTHENTIC PRESIDENTIAL CHART—The Publication Services, Inc., 820 DuPont Circle Building, Washington 6, D. C., has prepared a chart (21" x 26") entitled *USA at a Glance*. The price of a single chart is 50 cents; in quantities to the same address, they are: 5 charts at 47 cents each, 25 charts at 45 cents each, 50 charts at 42 cents each, and 100 or more charts at 40 cents each. This chart contains many thousands of individual facts. It shows not only pictures of our 33 Presidents but also, in graph form, the whole span of our nation and the lives and times of our Presidents. The story is told by a structural form of life bars the Presidents have thrown against the horizontal scale of years from 1730 to 1954. A bar is provided for each President. In addition, these bars are shown in relation to such facts as population growth, growth in area, the presidential vote, annual national incomes, admission of states, important historical events, etc. The chart was designed by Alan Murray.

BEST-SELLING ADULT NOVELS TO BE ADAPTED FOR TEENAGERS—A new kind of book designed to bring teenagers wholesome and entertaining adaptations of popular adult novels was launched by Hanover House, 575 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N. Y., on June 7. These books are recent best-sellers with solid historical backgrounds, rewritten by experienced authors for teenagers. The flavor of the historical period and the essential characters and story are preserved, but the reading pace is increased and outspoken sections omitted. The publishers believe that these books will provide a bridge to the world of adult reading for the teenager who has outgrown children's books and wants to read adult novels, but finds their length, complexity, and frankness a bit beyond him.

Titles are selected on the basis of popularity and valuable historical background. The first four books (see "Book Column" section for reviews) were *Immortal Wife* by Irving Stone; adapted by Lavinia R. Davis; *The Iron Mistress* by Paul Wellman, adapted by James L. Summers; *The Velvet Doublet* by James Street, adapted by James Street, Jr.; and *Woman with a Sword* by Hollister Noble, adapted by Ruth Adams Knight. Other headliner editions include Daphne du Maurier's *The King's General* and Ernest Gebler's *The Plymouth Adventure*.

FOOD INDUSTRY HAS GOOD FUTURE FOR ENGINEERS AND TECHNICIANS—The food industry, which now is going through an era of revolution in unit operations and processes, offers almost unlimited advantages to technical and professional men, according to an article in *Food Engineering*, McGraw-Hill publication. At present, there is an urgent demand for several thousand food engineers to serve firms in the "biggest, oldest, and most stable

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industry of them all"; a demand that has created a salary level for recent food engineering graduates that exceeds the average for the engineering professions for which comparable data are available, the magazine reports.

Because food engineering is a new profession, only a handful of people hold degrees in that branch of engineering; even those holding degrees in food technology are relatively few in number. In 1947, for example, the food industry, which does \$67 billion annually in retail sales and includes more than 30,000 plants in this country, had a potential of only 250 graduating students who were technically equipped for the industry.

The food engineer combines engineering knowledge with a knowledge of the food sciences; his work might be defined as a combination of mechanical engineering and the biological sciences. The technologist also has a background of practical knowledge, but he concentrates on the scientific rather than the engineering aspects of the work.

The need for trained men in the food industry covers nearly every phase of technical work: fundamental and applied research, pilot plant operation, quality control, sanitation, manufacturing operations, equipment design and operation, industrial engineering, and even crop production and meteorology. Moreover, there is opportunity for wide diversification, since the average technical man in a food company is concerned with many different phases of the technical and management operations.

Today's trends point to a food plant of the future which will be a highly mechanized operation, almost completely dependent on the creativeness and the subsequent supervision of a food engineer. There are other numberless advantages in food today for the young engineer; non-seasonal operations (especially for the research in regard to production line and other improvements); a highly "depression-proof" industry; a chance to work with a vital and diversified product that offers the engineer prestige as well as an interesting and high-paying job; and an opportunity to locate in the area of his preference.

TEACHING RESPONSIBILITY—The Metropolitan School Study Council, a research affiliate of Teachers College, Columbia University, has recently released a filmstrip entitled *Responsibility Can Be Taught*. This filmstrip, with original drawings by Miss Margaret Meedk, is designed to establish better understandings between parents and teachers as to how they may consistently work to develop better feelings of responsibility in young people. *Responsibility Can Be Taught* is a product of the Individual Growth and Development Committee of the Metropolitan School Study Council. It may be purchased from the MSSC, 525 West 120th Street, New York 27, N. Y., at a list price of \$6.50 per print. There are 34 frames; color only.

ADD "COLLEGE" BIOLOGY—Joining the ranks of college-level courses this fall, a course in chemistry and another in biology will make a total of seven such courses available for specially selected seniors in Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois. The others are in French, Spanish, English, European history, and mathematics. College level chemistry will meet one period daily with the regular chemistry course as a prerequisite; biology CL will be a laboratory course with no prerequisites. College-level courses, a part of ETHS's participation in the School and College Study of Admission with Advanced Standing, enable talented students to take certain courses normally taught to college freshmen, during the senior year in high school. Under the plan developed by 12 colleges and universities and 12 secondary schools, college credit will be given by the co-operative institutions to those pupils who successfully pass a final examination in such courses. Thus outstanding students receive extra stimulation in high school and many also take more advanced work when they enter college.

SCHOOL STUDY COUNCILS—The March, 1954, issue of *Educational Outlook* published by the University of Education, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Dr. E. Duncan Grizzell, editor, is devoted entirely to the subject of "School Study Councils." Copies of this issue may be secured for 65 cents each from the editor at the above address.

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A JOURNAL DEVOTED TO CHILDREN—The Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare publishes *Children*, a professional journal on services for children and on child life. It is published six times a year and is available from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C. at \$1.25 per subscription. Each issue contains outstanding articles in this area. The March, 1954, issue, for example, included such articles as: "The False Dichotomy of Professional versus General Education," "Some Concepts in the Treatment of Delinquency," and "Citizens Take Hold."

NATION'S SCHOOLS CAN SECURE KING RICHARD II FOR SHOWING—Prints of the kinescope recording of Maurice Evans' two-hour production of Shakespeare's *King Richard II*, which was presented on the NBC television network last January, are available for showing in the nation's schools. The sponsor of Mr. Evans' TV production, Hallmark Cards of Kansas City, Mo., is financing the processing and distribution of these 16mm. prints to secondary schools and colleges at no cost to the schools. This is the first time a major "live" television production has been cleared for subsequent widespread distribution to the nation's schools. Conceived as a joint educational project by Mr. Evans, Hallmark Cards, and NBC, it was made possible because of the generosity of the cast and production staff in waiving additional fees or rights.

Hallmark Cards will furnish prints to schools in three 40-minute segments, accompanied by classroom study material. The kinescope is printed from an original negative made on January 24 during the live television show. Distribution is handled by the Institute of Visual Training, 40 East 49th Street, New York. While no admission charge can be made for any showings, the prints may be projected in all public, parochial, or private schools and colleges and before related educational groups, such as parent-teacher organizations. This film was viewed in approximately 2,000 schools during May and June of last year. Distribution at no cost to the school will continue this year as long as a demand for it exists.

Mr. Evans' appearance in *King Richard II* on the Hallmark Hall of Fame on January 24 won nation-wide acclaim from critics and viewers alike, as did his previous appearance in *Hamlet* on the same program the year before. Evans personally adapted and produced the play for television. Albert McCleery, regular producer-director, and George Schaeffer directed for the Evans' office.

In addition to Maurice Evans in the title role, the drama featured Sarah Churchill as Richard's queen, Kent Smith as Bolingbroke, and Frederick Worlock as John of Gaunt. Associate producers were Emmett Rogers and Mildred Freed Alberg. Richard Sylbert designed the sets and Noel Taylor supervised the costumes.

EVALUATING THE SCHOOL PROGRAM—The West Virginia Association of Secondary-School Principals has spent a number of years upon the development of an instrument to help principals evaluate their school progress in the light of established objectives. It is based on the idea that any change must be made in keeping with real educational needs. The plan is self-evaluating; that is, it is designed to be a guide to help school people analyze their own problems and seek their solutions. It is a product of the thinking of the Planning Committee of the West Virginia Secondary-School Principals' Association, a group that has been heading a movement for the advancement in supervisory practices and curriculum improvement in the schools of West Virginia. The principals' association regional conferences have stimulated much interest and are largely responsible for the current changes in the high-school programs throughout the state. Although this instrument is designed especially for junior and senior high schools, it is the hope of the committee that it will be used, where possible, by school people on all grade levels. The instrument is entitled *Curriculum Evaluation Procedures for West Virginia Schools* and is in a booklet form of 28 pages.

MINIMUM SIZE OF HIGH SCHOOL—William M. Barr, reporting a study of current expenditures of selected Indiana high schools for the school year 1952-53, concludes that an

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average of 100 pupils per grade in grades 9 to 12 is the minimum number necessary to provide an adequate educational program at minimum cost per pupil. A report of his study is given in the May, 1954, issue of the *Bulletin* of the School of Education, Indiana University, under the title "An Analysis of the Current Expenditures of Selected Indiana High Schools." It is available for \$1 from the Indiana Univ. Bookstore, Bloomington, Indiana.

A NEW COLLEGE OF EDUCATION—The University of Nevada has organized a new college of education offering a full schedule of one-, two-, and four-year courses for future teachers. Dr. Garold Holstine is dean of the college. With the creation of the new college of education, the University of Nevada will offer for the first time bachelor of arts and bachelor of science degrees in education. The new curriculum plans for study in teaching and administration on elementary- and high-school levels. Both undergraduate and graduate study are provided. A program of Saturday, evening, and off-campus courses has also been planned for Nevada teachers and administrators working toward accreditation of master's degrees.

The one- and two-year normal courses are designed to alleviate the teaching shortage in Nevada and other states. Students will be prepared for teaching in both rural and urban elementary schools, with a choice of specializing in such study areas as kindergarten, art, and music. The one- and two-year courses also lead to bachelor's degrees. Under an interdepartmental arrangement, students pointing toward four-year degrees can specialize in such fields as agriculture, home economics, art, business and education, English, speech, drama, journalism, library, foreign languages, mathematics, history, music and physical education.

A COURSE IN OCCUPATIONS—Profitable results from a high-school course in occupations, both in job satisfaction and in earnings for your workers who took the course, have been reported by New York University through a study by Edward R. Cuony, head of the guidance department in the public schools of Geneva, New York, who taught the course in job finding and job orientation to an experimental group of 35 high-school seniors there. One year after their graduation he compared them with an equated group from the same class of the same school. Results of the study conducted under the sponsorship of Professor Robert Hoppock showed that the students who had taken the course were better satisfied with their jobs than those who had not taken the course. The combined annual earnings of the experimental group exceeded those of the control group by \$7,719; the course cost \$1,542.

TWO FILMS—The Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau of the College of Education of Wayne University announces the release of a new motion picture entitled *Le Mont Saint-Michel*. This film is available in two versions, French and English. The French version, produced in collaboration with the University's French department, is intended for use in high-school and college French language classes. The commentary is specifically paced for use with students, and the vocabulary has been selected on the basis of that familiar to the average second-year French student. The English version is an interesting travelogue-type film covering the historical background, as well as the place of the Mont today as one of France's outstanding tourist attractions. It is also suitable for showing to general adult audiences. The films, available in color only, French or English version, sell for \$75 each. Prints are also available for rental.

The Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau has released another new motion picture entitled *Beauty in Stone*. By means of color photography, this film presents the work of George Papashvily, a well-known Pennsylvania sculptor who carves in stone. The story traces the steps taken by Mr. Papashvily in the creation of an artistic object—from locating the proper stone, to grinding and polishing, and, finally, to the finished product. This film is designed for art education classes on the high-school, college, and university level, and also for general adult audiences. It is a one-reel film available in color only and sells for \$75 or may be rented.

Program for the Nation is another in the series of filmstrips treating contemporary affairs. It, as well as the other filmstrips in the series, is designed primarily for use in junior and senior high-school social studies classes. It stresses the need not only for an understanding of international

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relations, but more particularly for an understanding of, and interest in, such domestic problems as housing, education, social security, health, and welfare. It points out that there is a direct inter-relationship between many of our social and economic problems. This 35-frame, black-and-white filmstrip, supplemented by a discussion guide giving valuable background information, is available for \$3.50 each.

A filmstrip entitled *How We Find Out* shows youngsters *how* and *where* to find information—how to use both school and community resources. It illustrates how pupils in the upper elementary and junior high-school grades may do simple research projects, and serves to create interest and enthusiasm for individual and group study. This filmstrip, plus accompanying discussion guide which gives extensive background information as well as suggested pre-showing and post-showing activities, sells for \$3.50. These four filmstrips are available from the Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau, Wayne University, Detroit 1, Michigan.

A SCHOOL EVALUATES ITSELF—Leroy B. Stennett, Principal of the Glenville High School, Glenville, West Virginia, at the thirty-fourth annual meeting of the West Virginia Association of Secondary-School Principals, describes a plan whereby all teachers in his school evaluate the school from grades 1 through 12. Each teacher was given a copy of the checklist entitled *How Well Does Your High School Rate on the Imperative Needs of Youth* (available from the NASSP, 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C., 40 pages, 35 cents each, with quantity discount). He evaluated each statement from a personal viewpoint. The principal states: "Along with this checklist we made an intensive study of the 'Imperative Needs of Youth.' After each 'individual needs' checklist had been completed, we tabulated the results from all of the teachers and obtained the average score on each statement of the checklist and also the average score from a total of all the statements. From this total average score we could determine the score for each individual need.

"This procedure was of great help to us in evaluating our present educational offerings. The teachers became very much interested in the procedure, and we hope to continue our study until we have covered each of the thirteen individual needs.

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4. It has stimulated the teachers to do something about our weaknesses.
5. It has caused each teacher to develop a broader evaluation and study of his contribution to the child.
6. It has brought about changes in our curriculum content and method."

THE ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATIONAL SERVICES OF THE STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION—A questionnaire consisting of 155 questions relating to the administration of educational services of state boards of education was submitted, outside Tennessee, to 200 professors of educational administration in state universities and 94 governors and chief state school officers (with an addition for factual information requests). In Tennessee, the questionnaire was submitted to 21 professors of educational administration in six colleges granting graduate degrees in education, the governor, state commissioner of education, and nine members of the state board of education. One hundred seventy-five professors (18 in Tennessee) responded with completed questionnaires. Thirty-nine chief state school officers, fifteen governors, and four school board members replied with usable information.

It was the prevailing opinion that the state constitution should make general provision for the state board of education, but that the number of members and their qualification should be left to legislative enactment. The groups responding (except New England professors and all chief state school officers) felt that the constitution rather than legislature should provide for

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the office of chief state school officer, but that the duties be set out by law in a general way. It was felt that, of the districting suggested, divisions of the state would be more suitable for election of board members. Greatest opposition was voiced to election by counties; there was some support for election by local boards.

All groups opposed the selection of professional educators as members of the state board. It was their further opinion that political party membership should not be considered in selection and that connection with a textbook publisher be disqualification. Place of residence and moral character should be considered, but not sex or previous educational experience.

Southern professors favored election of state boards by the people and were overwhelmingly opposed to selection by the governor or any other method suggested. The North Central group favored appointment by the governor or local boards' election as did the New England and Middle Atlantic group. Western and Northwestern states were strongest in their opposition to election of board members by the legislature. Governors almost unanimously opposed selection by local boards, preferred instead that board members obtain their office by gubernatorial appointment. All except Southern professors and chief state school officers were opposed to having any *ex-officio* members of the state board. Governors and chief state school officers were opposed to having the governor or chief state school sit as *ex-officio* member of the state board.

The prevailing opinion among all participants was that the board should determine educational policies for the public elementary and secondary schools of the state and the junior college extensions, if any. There was some division concerning board policy-making for the higher institutions; North Central and Western professors opposed; Southern and Northeastern favored; governors tended to favor, while chief state school officers were divided.

Professors were overwhelmingly in favor of having the board prescribe the specific duties of chief state school officers; determine a minimum course of study; adopt rules for buses' operation, teacher retirement and tenure; establish equalization policy; and make recommendations to the legislature for school laws. Chief state school officers, as did some professors, showed opposition to management of state school lands, teacher tenure and retirement regulations by the state board.

All groups agreed that the state board of education, as such, should be responsible for vocational education, adult education, Indian education, health education, and nurseries-kindergartens. Governors and chief state school officers particularly endorsed these proposals.

New England professors opposed the chief state school officer's prescribing the state course of study; other professors voiced opposition to the chief state school officer's film censorship assignment, prescription of rules for higher institutions and budget and salary schedules for local districts. There was general agreement that the chief state school officer should have initial responsibility of recommending policies to the state board for adoption. There was further general agreement that the chief state school officer and his staff should be agents for executing educational policy except in some local school matters. There was opposition to the chief school officer's recommending textbooks for adoption.

The prevailing opinion among participants was that the naming of divisions in the state department of education should not be a matter fixed by law, but should be left to the state board of education's decision upon the recommendation of the chief state school officer, as should the employment of personnel in the department.

It was the overwhelming opinion of professors, governors, and chief officers that the state school officer should be appointed by the state board of education (and by no other method) and that he should serve as executive officer of the board.

Appreciation is extended to all who participated in this study. Copies of the questionnaire are available for study groups in the process of reorganizing some phase of their central agency at \$15 per hundred copies, or \$10 per hundred for two hundred or more. Address all inquiries to Claude M. Hill, Jr., P. O. Box 2483 Peabody College, Nashville 5, Tennessee.

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